

**INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO  
THIRD WORLD EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING  
- A CASE STUDY OF A MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT -**

**by**

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## ABSTRACT

There is widespread recognition of the contribution of training towards strengthening Third World educational management, and international assistance in this area has been increasing. A range of strategies have been adopted by Third World governments and donor agencies to promote training improvement. The central aim of this thesis is to consider these strategies and the possible determinants of their success, with particular reference to one such initiative, the research and materials development project funded by the Overseas Development Administration of the UK 'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials'. The objectives of this project were to undertake research and develop training materials to help improve the quality of training provision for Third World educational managers and administrators.

The case study is placed in context through a consideration of the literature on educational management in general and training in particular. The experience in related areas of public administration and business management training is also examined. Reference is made to literature on educational innovation, including western experiences of curriculum and materials development, and on international assistance to Third World educational development.

The achievements of the project and the problems encountered are discussed and analysed, utilising a theoretical framework derived from systems theory and theories of change. The case study highlights a number of issues and constraints on international assistance in this area, particularly those concerning assumptions of commonality and cross-cultural influences on the content and processes of educational management training. It is evident that no global generalisations can be drawn, but certain success criteria for strategies involving the development and introduction of materials are identified. It would seem that materials development strategies can only be a partial strategy for training improvement; attention also needs to be given to institutional and staff development.

The experiences of alternative strategies are examined, and these, together with the lessons from the case study analysis, suggest that a mix of strategies is desirable. There is a need for further research, and considerable caution is advocated in devising strategies for assistance in this area. The thesis concludes with suggestions as to the more general factors which should be taken into consideration by those concerned with formulating, selecting, adopting or implementing a strategy for international assistance in improving the quality of Third World educational management training.

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I owe a particular debt to colleagues at the Department of International and Comparative Education, University of London Institute of Education, where I have been both student and research officer. In the early days, Peter Williams provided valuable support as my supervisor, with his many searching questions and suggestions. When he left for the Commonwealth Secretariat, the thesis was neglected for a time as I was travelling extensively on the research project. Under the more recent supervision of Dr. Trevor Coombe the thesis took its present form, and I am especially grateful to him for his sympathetic guidance and encouragement, and his many suggestions and constructive criticisms.

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## MAIN ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE THESIS

AID	Agency for International Development, United States
APEID	Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development of Unesco
CARNEID	Caribbean Network of Educational Innovation for Development of Unesco
CCEA	Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration
CERI	Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD
COFORPA	Regional Technical Co-operation for Training and Research in Educational Planning and Administration of UNESCO/BREDA
EPIDAS	Educational Programme of Innovation for Development in the Arab States of Unesco
ERIC	Educational Resources Information Center (US)
IBE	The International Bureau of Education
IDA	International Development Association, World Bank
IDEA	Institute for the Development of Educational Administrators (Thailand)
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning, of Unesco
IIP	International Intervisitation Program
ILO	International Labour Organisation
INNOTECH	Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology, SEAMEO
INSET	In-service Education and Training (of teachers)
ISIP	International School Improvement Project, CERI/OECD
KESI	Kenya Educational Staff Institute
MESTI	Malaysian Educational Staff Training Institute
NDC	National Development Centre for School Management Training, University of Bristol, UK
NEIDA	Network of Educational Innovation for Development in Africa of Unesco
NIEM	National Institute of Educational Management (Malaysia) - formerly, MESTI
NIEPA	National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (India)
ODA	Overseas Development Administration, United Kingdom
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SEAMEO	Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation
SIDA	Swedish International Development Authority
SCEA	Staff College for Educational Administrators (Sri Lanka)
TCTP	Technical Co-Operation Training Programme, of the British Council
TTWEAMM	'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials' (ULIE Research Project)
UCEA	The University Council for Educational Administration (an American network)
ULIE	University of London Institute of Education
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
"/EPP	Division of Educational Policy and Planning (Paris)
"/BREDA	The Regional Office for Education in Africa (Dakar, Senegal)
"/ROEAP	The Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (Bangkok, Thailand)

(Other abbreviations are explained wherever they occur)

## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND AND NATURE OF THE STUDY

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The first chapter starts by noting the current international interest in educational management and the range of strategies adopted by Third World governments and donor agencies to promote educational management training improvement. This is the focus of the study, with particular reference to the 'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials' project funded by the Overseas Development Administration of the UK. An explanation is given of the thesis methodology - the analysis of the case study and a review of the literature - used to identify strategic factors contributing towards successful international assistance in this area.

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#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Third World educational management improvement has received considerable attention in recent years. It is a high priority for international assistance and there have been a number of major initiatives on the training of educational managers and administrators including the case study presented here. A brief examination of international assistance and the emergence of educational management on the international agenda will first be given as a background to the study, together with some explanation of concepts and terminology used in the thesis.

##### 1.1.1 EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT ON THE INTERNATIONAL AGENDA

###### International assistance and educational development

Many Third World countries depend on the various international agencies for financial assistance in the development of aspects of their educational systems. These agencies include the large multilateral agencies like the World Bank and Unesco, the bilateral agencies of western governments, such as the Overseas Development Administration of the UK, and various non-governmental organisations of

which the International Council for Educational Development is an example. The influence of these aid agencies on educational development is profound although hard to assess in precise terms.

Overall policies for international assistance are underpinned by assessments of the meaning of and underlying causes of development and underdevelopment. Thus over the years there have been changes in international perceptions of the development process with the emphasis shifting from a focus on economic growth per se, to a recognition of the importance of income distribution; from production to the satisfaction of human needs; and from technology to the development of human resources (eg. Hurst, 1981a; McLean, 1981). The current commitment to human resource development is itself already beginning to be overshadowed by ideas of the enterprise culture, a philosophy particularly favoured by certain western governments.

Most agencies have produced policy documents specifically on aid to education. At any one period of time, these policies, together with the comparative, international and development education literature, reveal a fairly consistent set of pre-occupations, perceived problems and possible solutions, reflecting prevailing orthodoxies, value systems and intellectual fashions. Thus the last few decades have seen a succession of attempts to extend the provision of education in developing countries, to define more relevant aims and contents, to improve the quality of education and generally make it more efficient, effective and equitable. Over the years a variety of means have been adopted to achieve such goals. In the sixties educational technology was high on the international agenda, later came non-formal education, vocational education and other 'fashions'.

Many of these past efforts at educational reform and improvement had limited impact on overall educational development. This was due, it is now widely argued, to the poor quality and inadequacy of the administrative and management system. Hence, in the early eighties, educational management development became a priority area for international assistance. Now, it seems, the use of

microcomputers in education is the rising star. However, to over-emphasise the oscillatory nature of these trends is somewhat misleading. In reality the trends have overlapping foci rather than involving distinct and sudden changes over time; new phases frequently encapsulate earlier phases. Moreover, it needs to be asked who sets these trends and whether indeed there is a consensus between aid agencies, recipient governments and/or academic advisers regarding the international agenda. This is a somewhat controversial issue as a number of contributions to this debate highlight. For example, Hurst suggests that in education:

... perhaps no more than a few hundred key agency and Ministry officials, plus some scores of influential academic advisers, form a tightly-knit and inward-looking group which decides the reform agenda for most of the developing world. (1981b, p. 191).

Spaulding maintains that:

... it is something of a myth that these interventions are at the invitations of the national authorities who invite the various agencies to help them achieve locally formulated goals and objectives. (1981, p. 208)

And more recently, King observes that:

... the discourse on priorities in regional and international meetings tends to be a normative discourse, pointing to what is not in fact currently a priority but which perhaps ought to be in the eyes of national governments or of donors (1986, p. 129).

It is now widely held that there is a need for more equal aid negotiation. One of the prime tasks, as King has argued, is to review the rationale and logic of aid to education from both the donor and recipient perspective. He distinguishes between political and professional priorities in both the North and South and suggests four levels at which these may be expressed: the political level in donor countries; the political level in recipient countries; the professional programme level in donor countries where for example, the academics and innovators may have some influence on new priorities and delivery strategies; and the professional programme level in the recipient countries where the users are at the interchange between the

priorities of the various donors and those of their own political masters.

The groups of people operating at these levels, which for simplification can be called the international-political, the international-professional, the national-political and the local-professional may have different perceptions of the nature of the priority areas and the relative merits of alternative strategies for alleviating problems. A discussion of the notion of strategy can throw some further light on this issue.

'Strategy' has come to enjoy widespread favour in international development jargon but is, somewhat confusingly, used in different ways. For example, discussions of educational priorities and aid responses might refer to an overall strategy of "more aid to the poorest", whilst at another level of discourse, attention might be focused on specific operational strategies say, for implementing secondary school curriculum reforms. The former use suggests the intentional mobilization of ideas and resources (human and monetary) around a single goal and broadly involves a set of choices and decisions concerning objectives, policies, plans and processes. A question then is, whose goals and objectives are under consideration? This point is well made in the critical assessment of The Experimental World Literacy Programme (Unesco, UNDP, 1976), where the concept of a strategic approach to solving the problem of literacy is questioned. Strategy, when used in this sense, conjures up an image of high command - the planning, mounting and (presumably) winning of a war of some sort - and this may be a misleading interpretation of what literacy programme action (and indeed other action) should be.

Strategy may thus imply a top down solution to a set of problems, revealing a fundamental imbalance in the donor-recipient relationship, whereby the donor decides that strategy X is the most appropriate means of assisting the recipient in a certain endeavour. Whilst it is probably true that donor agencies influence overall strategies by preferring particular forms of aid and specific styles and mechanisms for its disbursement, it is likely that actual



operational strategic decisions are to some extent a product of negotiation involving participative problem-solving by donor and recipient professionals.

The total picture on policies and programmes of major agencies and their contribution to educational development is complex and a detailed exploration of the issues surrounding aid is beyond the scope of this thesis. What is offered is a micro-study on a small aspect of the whole - the alternative operational strategies which are or could be adopted to effect qualitative improvement in educational management training.

#### Educational management improvement

The emergence of educational management and administrator training on to the international aid agenda is not surprising. The diagnosis (by donors and recipients) that implementation of innovative efforts in education was the weak link in the chain highlighted the need for educational management improvement. The problems of management and administration have been addressed through attempts at both structural reform and human resource development. Thus many Third World countries have focused on structural re-organisation as a means of improving the efficiency of their education systems, and as Hughes (1986) notes, there has been considerable international recognition of the potential value of decentralization. There has also been a growing realisation of the need to take steps to alleviate the shortage of appropriately trained personnel and generally to promote the effectiveness and capabilities of administrators and managers through training.

There are however several dangers inherent in this present preoccupation with training:

... One is that training administrators will become another on the list of transient fads or gimmicks to which education is prone, to be replaced by something else as soon as it appears that results will be hard to come by and will not be achieved overnight. Another is that commitment will be rhetorical rather than real, and that token efforts will merely scratch the surface of the problem (Hurst & Rodwell, 1986, p.241).

One additional point should be made in considering the prevailing orthodoxy that educational management development or 'training' is the key to educational improvement in the Third World. As noted above, a criticism levelled at many international projects in the past is that they are expounding a philosophy and proposing strategies which involve the transfer of a set of solutions from the west. Certainly, the focus on educational management improvement is a worldwide phenomenon, but what is interesting is that many Third World initiatives (albeit aid-prompted) preceded those in industrialised countries. Britain, for example, has only recently launched a national scheme for training school heads, as is also the case in other European countries. North America has a longer tradition of educational administrator preparation but with a focus on graduate programmes rather than specific job-related training.

It may be that international assistance projects in this area are not actually imposing solutions from the West. On the other hand, the actual operational strategies deployed, such as institutional development, staff development and course development are frequently formulated within an aid framework and may well involve issues of transfer. Thus questions could be raised concerning curriculum and materials development initiatives as attempts to transfer knowledge and processes across cultures; a problem which has been discussed in relation to school curricula (e.g. Lillis, 1985), but is largely unexplored in the educational management field.

Projects focusing on different aspects of Third World educational management improvement are now widespread, and this study examines one such initiative in detail, within the context of international assistance to educational management training. The next section delineates the field of study in detail, but first a few comments are necessary on the terminology used.

### 1.1.2 SOME DEFINITIONS

In writing this thesis a number of terms and concepts are used which appear to have different meanings or connotations in various educational circles. In order to

avoid confusion and ambiguity some clarification is necessary as to how they are used in this text. Only those terms used extensively in the thesis are defined below; others are explained when used if thought necessary (an explanation of abbreviations used is given on page 7).

Much time is given over in the literature to defining and differentiating between the terms manager and administrator, and to discussing the nature of management and administration. It is evident that internationally there is no agreement on meanings; indeed the connotations attached to these labels are often reversed, and fashions in use have changed over time. For some, the administrator refers to a system person, and the manager refers to an institutional person. Others see the administrator as the implementer, doing what has been agreed needs to be done, whilst the manager is the decider who makes judgements. Confusion arises since many individuals are likely to be both administrators and managers. The term manager is used by preference in this thesis, to signify those persons actively and purposefully involved in the management of educational processes, be they at institutional or system level. Administration is however sometimes used to denote the broader range of activities undertaken within the educational system, and in those instances where other writers use the term by preference. The context within which each is used will, it is hoped, clarify what is meant. (The case study project had the term 'administrators' in its title, although it is probable that if initiated now the more fashionable term 'managers' would be used.)

Third World is generally used in preference to 'developing countries' or 'the South', to indicate those countries which are generally the focus of aid initiatives. The important point is that the thesis generally treats the Third World as a single category, making no differentiation between either geographical regions or nations unless otherwise stated. The limitations of such a generalisation are recognised, but to attempt greater specificity would render the thesis impossibly complicated. The problems inherent in this usage are discussed where appropriate.

International assistance means the provision of resources (money, processes, personnel, and or products) to a Third World country (or countries) through the interventions of an external multilateral, bilateral or non governmental agency. International assistance is provided by donor agencies in a variety of forms and under a number of schemes. Normally a distinction is made between technical assistance projects (concerned primarily with human resources), and capital assistance projects (eg. for building construction and extending or equipping institutions), although projects often combine both elements. Moreover some projects funded under certain functional schemes, whilst not deemed technical assistance as such, may have technical assistance spin-offs. International assistance to and for research, a category into which the thesis case study falls, is an example of this, as will be explained in Chapter Three.

The concept of transfer has featured in many of the more ideological discussions of relations between the Third World and the west, particularly in respect of strategies involving the provision of ideas, practices and products (and all the underlying dimensions and implications of this provision) to the Third World from industrialised countries.

The notion of strategy was discussed earlier. It can be conceived as a continuum from the broadest level of strategic orientation concerning overall processes of selecting goals or ends, to the more specific level of operations where means are selected and implemented. The term is used in the thesis rather loosely to encompass both the courses of action and the various procedures selected by groups and individuals at different levels and times to reach desired goals. Once again, the context should clarify the precise meaning intended.

The term training refers to any formal process which aims to help improve and develop participants' knowledge, skills and attitudes for well defined job contexts. 'Specialist training institution' implies any organised and recognised site or facility which is involved, in this case, in the training of educational managers and administrators.

Institutional development is described by the World Bank as the establishment, strengthening and enhancement of the capacity of institutions to perform their functions efficiently. It involves a wide array of interrelated items such as capacity building, professional staff development, effectiveness and efficiency of leadership, institutionalising of operations, institutional linkages, and the establishment of systems for national policy making and co-ordination in relation to developing (institutional) capacities for improving management in practice (World Bank, 1985, p. 28). Thus 'institution building' (construction of facilities and supply of equipment) is one component of institutional development.

## 1.2 THE FOCUS OF THE THESIS

### 1.2.1. THE SCOPE

#### Strategies for improving educational management training

International assistance for strengthening Third World educational management in general, has involved a range of approaches, focusing on both structural and personnel improvement and development. An example of the former would be support for the re-organisation of a Ministry of Education and decentralisation of an education system. It is however, the latter concern, support to Third World educational management training, that is the topic of this thesis, although it is recognised that structural and personnel improvement are frequently complementary approaches.

Strategies for improving Third World educational management training are varied. In general terms the main thrusts of aid to this area are direct training provision, and support to the overall development of the national training system and its institutions, including more particular attempts oriented towards improving the quality of existing training programmes.

To further clarify these distinctions, the range of strategies can be summarised under the three broad categories presented on the following page.

(i) Training provision (direct training of managers).

This may be in-country or out of country, and include programmes (i.e. seminars, courses, workshops etc.) for school heads, inspectors, planners etc. sponsored by bilateral and multilateral agencies, and run by either national trainers or expatriate resource persons. These may be run on a regular basis or be ad hoc courses run in response to specific needs. In addition, fellowship programmes are funded whereby nationals attend courses run by higher education institutions overseas (the west or third country) and by specialist institutes such as the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris.

(ii) Institution building (capital assistance projects).

Agencies have assisted Ministries of Education in establishing specialist institutes for the training of management personnel. In particular, several national training institutes have been, or are being, supported through World Bank loans (e.g. in Thailand, Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Malaysia, Indonesia). Institution building is usually, but not always, complemented by strategies for developing national training capacity in an overall institutional development effort.

(iii) Developing national training capacities (improving the quality of in-country training provision).

Multi- and bilateral agencies have played an active part in developing national training capacity in this field, through a variety of strategies including: training the trainers (in-country workshops, overseas fellowships and study tours, attendance at local or overseas courses); institutional development (e.g. through the provision of expert personnel); information exchange through seminars, conferences, meetings, study visits, and publications; the provision of materials; and support for curricula and materials development.

The thesis will examine some of these strategies in so far as they are documented. However, the major focus of the thesis is the strategy adopted in an international research and materials development project which is the subject of a detailed case study.

### The case study

'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials' (henceforth to be called ITWEAMM), was a four year research project funded by the Overseas Development Administration of the UK from April 1982 to March 1986. It was initiated by Dr. Paul Hurst, then a lecturer in the Department of Education in Developing Countries at the University of London Institute of Education (now called the Department of International and Comparative Education). The writer was appointed as research officer to the project shortly after commencement of funding.

The project originated out of a concern for the severe shortage of materials for use in the training of Third World educational administrators (or managers). The research aimed to uncover and help make some practical steps towards alleviating the shortage of appropriately trained personnel. Thus the strategy selected was to attempt to contribute towards improving the quality of training provision through research and the development and provision of training materials.

Chapters Three and Four will present a more detailed description and analysis of the project, its implementation and outcomes. At this point, a brief summary will be given of the project aims as initially formulated and laid out in the contract document, (ODA, 1981), the key operational features, and the final outcomes.

### Project aims

- (a) To survey (in three developing countries) the provision of training in educational administration and its quality in relation to the needs for trained administrators.
- (b) To survey and evaluate the types of training being offered, including some Western institutions, particularly the materials and techniques in use.
- (c) To develop new training materials and techniques together with a guide for trainees.

### The key features

- \* It was funded out of the Research and Development subhead of the British overseas aid vote

- \* It was based at the University of London Institute of Education, with a project director and full time research officer
- \* A project network consisting of 'participating' institutions in Third World countries was established
- \* It took the form of a series of events over a period of four years
- \* It involved the development of materials in the UK, and their introduction and trialling in a number of countries
- \* No project evaluation was built in to the project

#### Project outcomes

The major documents prepared by the project director (Paul Hurst) and the research officer (Susie Rodwell) were four training manuals and a set of training materials:

- Training Educational Administrators: A Guide to the Literature (Rodwell and Hurst)
- Analysing the Training Needs of Educational Administrators (Hurst and Rodwell)
- Educational Administrator Training Methods: A Guide (Rodwell)
- The Use of Microcomputers in Educational Administration (Hurst)
- Managing Educational Change: A package of materials for use on courses for school principals and middle-level administrators (Rodwell)

### 1.2.2.THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES

#### Aims, objectives and key research question

The overall aim of the thesis is to contribute to knowledge about strategies of international assistance to Third World educational management training, by setting out lessons from experience and identifying any determinants of success which may have implications for international co-operation in this field. The thesis thus endeavours constructively to combine scholarly concern and policy-related research in order to draw some conclusions which may be of value to those involved with making strategic decisions on these matters, be they policy-makers or professionals at international or national level.



More specifically, the objectives of the thesis are:

- (i) to examine and outline what is known about the field of study and related fields through a review of the literature;
- (ii) to present a case study of a research project, paying particular attention to its aims, assumptions, objectives, processes and outcomes, both intended and unintended;
- (iii) to analyse the project experiences in order to identify the main lessons with respect to formulating, designing and implementing materials development strategies;
- (iv) to synthesise the lessons from other projects which adopted a range of alternative strategies in this and other areas;
- (v) to identify key factors contributing towards success in international assistance in this area.

The key research question addressed by the thesis is:-

What factors need to be taken into account by the various people concerned at international, national and local level in making strategic decisions on assistance to Third World educational management training?

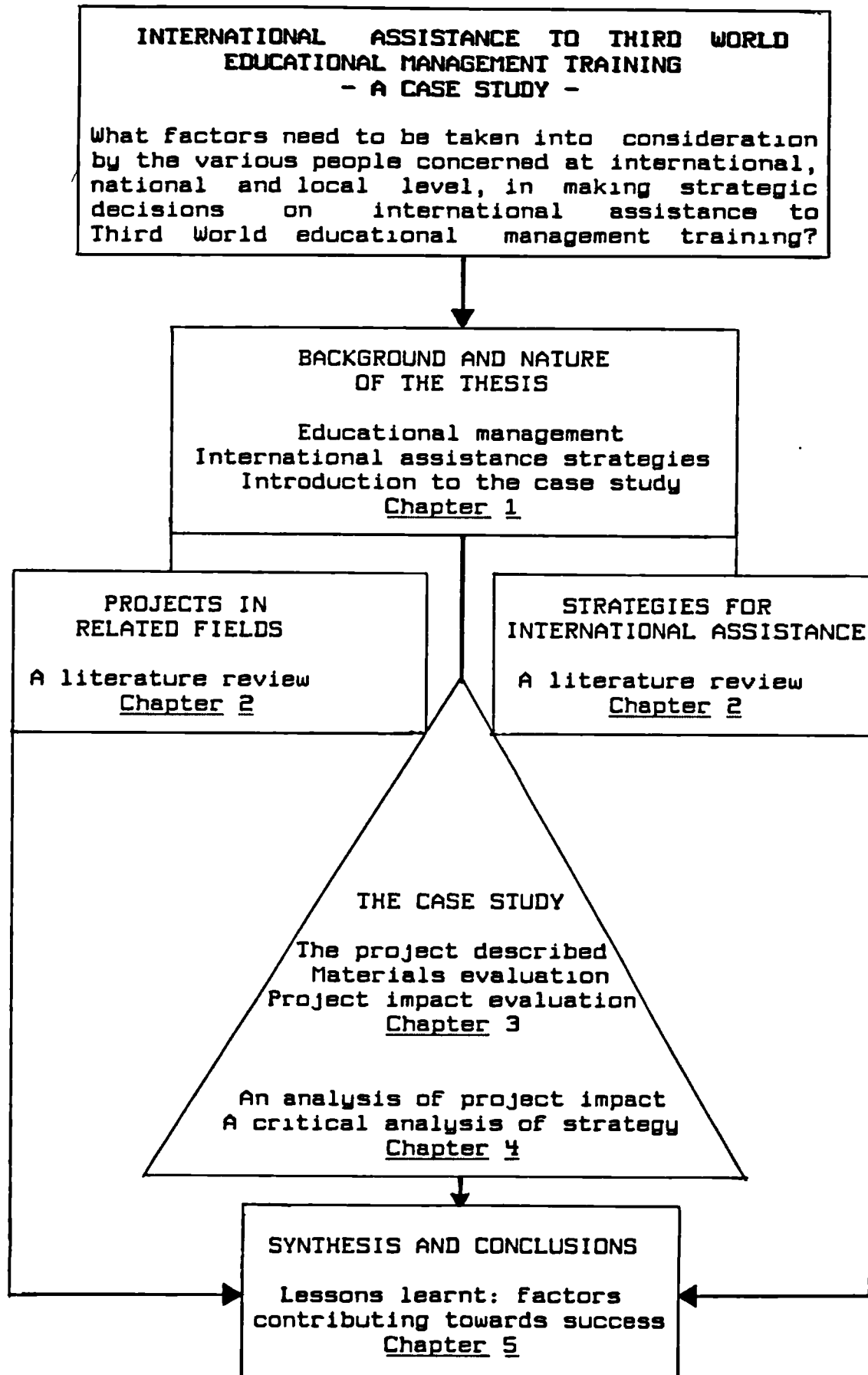
#### A summary

A schematic summary of the thesis is presented as Figure 1 on the next page. This also indicates the chapters in which topics and issues are further explored and analyses undertaken.

### **1.3. METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND APPROACHES**

The previous section has outlined the major focus of the thesis and presented the key research question. Before describing the methods employed in the study, this section discusses certain basic considerations underlying the thesis as a research study and the alternative approaches and theoretical perspectives which were explored in addressing the research question.

FIGURE 1 - A SUMMARY OF THE THESIS



### 1.3.1.SOME BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

#### Evaluation and research

Evaluation, as a systematic means of obtaining information, is one important aspect of the effort to improve the quality of international assistance projects. However, the literature on the evaluation of educational programmes and projects highlights many unresolved issues. These usually stem from fundamental questions about the purpose of evaluation - who needs information, what information and why, and the approaches - how evaluation should be undertaken.

The most common purposes of evaluation are either to help decisions concerning programme or project improvement (formative process evaluation during project implementation) and/or to assess programme impact for purposes of accountability (summative product information about the effectiveness or outcomes of a project). The degree of importance that should be attached to one or other purpose has been widely debated and depending on which is the main concern, has implications for the nature and methodology of the evaluation study.

Theory building is another and often concomitant goal of evaluation research. However, a distinction is often made between 'research' and 'evaluation', by defining research studies as having theory building as their main objective, and evaluation studies as aiming to provide systematic, reliable and valid information on the conduct, impact and effectiveness of projects. Since the latter will in some way contribute to theory building, it can be argued that all evaluation is research; indeed the contribution of project evaluations to the understanding of strategic issues is the major concern of this thesis. The point of some significance is that pure research in education involves a somewhat different set of methodological and theoretical issues than evaluation.

One problem encountered in educational research which aims to help generate the kind of understanding that addresses the concerns, of say, school administrators, planners or curriculum developers, is in the selection of a theoretical viewpoint which is relevant to the analysis of

educational organisations (Oldham, 1975). A way around this dilemma can be found in the view of the research process put forward by Glaser and Strauss (1968), who urge the use of research to generate theory from data (what they call grounded theory), instead of concentrating on the testing and verification of theories.

In such instances, the researcher would begin his or her investigation without having in mind any particular theory (although as a social scientist they would not, of course, be innocent of concepts which serve to organise data) but would allow the theory to emerge (Hoyle, 1975). There are certain problems in this. Theory generation aims to contribute towards understanding, but as Adams (1981) has observed, understanding is a rather virtuous but conveniently nebulous term and to be useful it has to be rendered down to become a set of organising principles.

The question of how evaluation should best be undertaken in order to contribute towards understanding is particularly problematic when dealing with educational projects. Practical difficulties surround: the breadth of educational goals; the assessment of qualitative improvements - the selection of success criteria and performance indicators; the possible subjective bias of evaluation data; the long term impact problem; and the need for flexibility to allow for the dynamic nature of programmes and the contexts on which they operate. In addition there are questions of causality, and more general concerns about the assumptions underlying evaluation designs.

#### Ideological and theoretical perspectives

In essence, the evaluation models chosen by individuals probably reflect their particular ideological viewpoints. Evaluation questions derive from assumptions which are made about the nature of society, people, change, education, schools and so forth, and the way in which they inter-relate. Moreover, all evaluation involves interpretation, although as Murphy (1977, p. 569) contends:

... this does not mean that analysts distort data to prove a point, but it does mean that their choice of

conceptual lenses and their interpretations are based on more than simple facts. In short, the process of applying models has forced us to become aware that there is no such thing as a neutral unbiased observer.

A particularly helpful overview of ideological and methodological perspectives on evaluation is provided by Paulston (1980) in his paper 'Evaluation and the explication of educational reform'. He discusses a range of theoretical approaches to evaluation, indicating how the various models can be grouped under two broad methodological headings, the objectivist and subjectivist epistemological orientations.

The objectivist model is evident in traditional methods; experiments and quasi-experimental studies and survey designs which aim to quantify and assess change using scientific method. By contrast, the subjectivist models allow for in-depth study of behavioural phenomena, an examination of the differing perceptions and value positions of multiple audiences, and the range of interactions involved before, during and after a particular event or series of events. The assessment of effectiveness is often viewed as becoming largely a matter of adopting a common sense approach and/or using subjective judgement. Many evaluators in recent years have adopted such subjectivist approaches, alternatively called interactive, pluralistic, phenomenological, ethnographic, naturalistic, or illuminative evaluation approaches.

Guba (1978) provides a further clarification of the two main groups of approaches, polarising them along a number of dimensions as illustrated below.

<u>DIMENSION</u>	<u>OBJECTIVIST</u>	<u>SUBJECTIVIST</u>
Philosophical base	logical positivism	phenomenology
Inquiry paradigm	experimental physics	ethnography
Purpose	verification	discovery
Stance	reductionist	emergent
Style	intervention	selection
Value structure	singular	plural
Setting	laboratory	nature
Context	unrelated	relevant
Scope	molecular	modular

The two groups, objectivist and subjectivist, clearly approach evaluation from vastly different methodological orientations and with different sets of values and assumptions. Nevertheless, the two paradigms are not at all points mutually exclusive and can be seen as potentially complementary approaches whereby the collection and analysis of both objective and subjective data will help make evaluation relevant and useful. However, whilst the use of alternative models may facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of how reform and evaluation decisions are made and implemented, recent attempts to view and evaluate educational change from multiple research perspectives have, according to Paulston (1980), been valuable but less than comprehensive.

Paulston believes that evaluation theories can be more usefully grouped through an exploration of different theories of social change which he classifies in terms of equilibrium perspectives (which stress rationality and consensus, and view reform as steps towards greater efficiency in existing systems) and conflict perspectives (which explain liberal reform as attempts to perpetuate class and group advantages, and use social equity and justice as the ultimate evaluation standard).

These theories influence the definition of the reform problem (what went wrong) and the choice of evaluation strategies and relevant data. Thus the thrust of Paulston's argument is that whilst traditionally educational evaluation has been rather narrowly viewed as positivistic inquiry, in order to produce "a more varied, insightful, and ultimately useful evaluation product" (Paulston, 1980, p. 316), decision-makers, planners and evaluators should be aware of the entire range of ideological and methodological perspectives on evaluation. The equilibrium and conflict social-change paradigms and the positivist and phenomenological research paradigms are all potentially useful in framing evaluation questions and selecting methods, but evaluators need to make their choices explicit.

As propounded by Paulston, evaluators face a daunting task in terms of the choices they have to make in designing an evaluation. Moreover, in addition to reflecting a

particular view as to the most appropriate overall approach to evaluation, an evaluation design will also be determined by the use that will be made of the evaluation results, and the time, money and skills available.

In reality the evaluator does not have the full range of choice, and field conditions impose limits on the type of study which can be undertaken. It is rare, for example, for experimental designs to be used in evaluating social action programmes. Even should such a design be desirable, there are practical problems associated with selecting and matching experimental and control samples, and with isolating dependent and independent variables. There are also ethical and moral questions surrounding the provision of 'treatments' to experimental groups alone and political constraints in gaining and maintaining access to target groups and control during the experimental period. As one would expect therefore, the case study, or series of comparative case studies, is more widely used than the experiment. Indeed this also reveals a move towards ethnographic (subjectivist) approaches, whereby in seeking to explain outcomes, the case study evaluation focuses on interventions, events, relationships and the structure of reality as perceived by the various participants involved.

#### A Comment

Some time has been spent exploring issues in evaluation and research because the literature was particularly illuminating in guiding thinking on how to approach and present this study. The most salient points to be derived from this discussion concern the complexity of social phenomena, the assumptions which are made about such phenomena, and the potential contribution to understanding of useable organising principles derived from case study evaluation efforts.

It is evident that whatever the scale of a project, be it a large scale educational reform which attempts to introduce major alterations in a national educational system, or a small-scale and isolated innovation which attempts to change education practices, the evaluator is presented with a similar range of problems, issues and

choices. In order to ensure that the study of such a project is both feasible and manageable, the first task is to clearly identify the various dimensions involved and examine them and their inter-relationships thoroughly. Some attention then needs to be given to alternative evaluation approaches and to explaining the reasons for choosing one particular evaluation approach over another. Finally, the information collected through the evaluation efforts can be analysed using a systematic framework to generate a set of principles or conclusions concerning the topic of study. These are the major methodological considerations which guided the development of this thesis.

### 1.3.2. THE APPROACH ADOPTED

#### An overview and rationale

The above discussion provides a background for considering the methodological base of this study. As will become evident it provides a justification for the overall approach which was adopted, namely the case study and literature review.

As has been explained, the focus of the thesis is the strategies used to help strengthen Third World educational management training, with particular reference to the ITWEAMM project. This project was intrinsically innovative, with its aim of developing and introducing materials for use in Third World training, and project implementation involved a variety of people, events, and environments over a period of four years. An examination of contextual issues, significant interventions, relationships and key influences, is thus essential to any understanding of the process. This suggests that probably the best method to use in trying to see how such an innovatory project operates in a real situation is an ethnographic approach deriving from a phenomenological base. A case study, whilst being subjective and anecdotal, is thus an appropriate inquiry paradigm; an experimental paradigm would not seem to be relevant or feasible. In point of fact, the circumstances (the writers' involvement as the project research officer) were such that it would not have been possible to adopt any more elaborate evaluation design for the thesis.



In sum, given the objectives of the thesis, a case study of the ITWEAMM project together with a detailed examination of the literature, were thought to be the most useful means of generating data for subsequent analysis and as a basis for drawing conclusions concerning strategies for international assistance in this area. The methodology of the thesis will now be elaborated.

### The Literature Review

The review of the literature has two main purposes. Firstly, it aims to place the case study in perspective through a discussion of contextual and specific problems surrounding Third World educational management development in general and training in particular. Secondly, it aims to introduce a range of international assistance projects in this and other areas, with a view to highlighting key strategic issues for subsequent analysis.

The questions which guided the search of the literature included the following:

- \* What is the nature of educational management and administration in Third World countries, and what are the specific problems and issues faced?
- \* What is the scope for improvement, and what strategies are being adopted by ministries of education and international agencies to help strengthen education management?
- \* What are the similarities and differences in personnel policies and administrator profiles in different countries?
- \* What personal qualities and capacities, additional knowledge and skills and techniques do managers need to deal with the problems faced, and to what extent are such needs universal?
- \* What are the alternative responses and strategies to meet these needs; is training an appropriate response?
- \* What is the scope and nature of present training provision in Third World countries, and what evidence is there that provision is meeting needs?

- \* What are some of the important issues facing those concerned with the provision of training in Third World countries?
- \* Which, if any, of these issues transcend international boundaries and specific disciplines (e.g. comparisons with public administration and industrial management, and with teacher education)?
- \* What is known about training methods and materials in general, and in the Third World in particular?
- \* What is known about matching methods and materials to the content and approaches of educational management training programmes?
- \* To what extent do experiences in curriculum and materials development and dissemination in the west and in the Third World throw light on the topic?
- \* What lessons can be drawn from the past decades of international assistance to Third World education, particularly with respect to alternative strategies adopted?

The literature was examined over a period of five years, starting at the time the TIWEAMM project commenced in 1982. The search covered the normal bibliographic sources for published literature (e.g. computer searches using ERIC, and the use of abstracts) and key journals have been studied. In addition, an attempt was made to monitor theses (British and American), although this source proved rather unfruitful. Relevant material was also acquired through contacts with certain agencies, particularly Unesco and the World Bank, and with Third World training institutions.

The major difficulty encountered in undertaking the review of the literature was in obtaining a truly representative selection of Third World writings. Some articles from non-western journals have been retrieved, but it is probable that there is more indigenous material which would be relevant to the thesis. Such material is generally rather inaccessible, and a more extensive search would have been desirable had time and resources permitted. However, since it is evident that a number of leading Third World academics and practitioners in this area are now making valuable contributions in international journals, the bias

towards 'western' sources is not thought to diminish the contribution of the literature review unduly. As for the recency of the material surveyed, the major search effort was completed towards the end of 1986 although more recent material has been included as it has come to light.

### The Case Study

The case study focuses on the experiences of the four year research project, ITWEAMM. It is presented in two chapters, Chapter Three being descriptive and Chapter Four being analytical.

Chapter Three consists of a systematic description of the project that aims to be factual and accurate, whilst acknowledging some inevitable bias and selectivity in relation to perceptions of events. Thus some unevenness in the quality of information is likely because the writer, as research officer, was understandably more concerned with doing than with recording. As a result, some post facto information may be of varying reliability.

The project is described at two levels, the global level and the country level (the project field trial countries). At the global level, the project is summarised in terms of its aims and rationale, the design and methodology, and the outputs both planned and unplanned. A more detailed description is also given on the development and evaluation of the project materials.

The project had different experiences in various countries and in organising the range of data available from the major activities in two countries (Kenya and Sri Lanka), the following descriptive framework is used:-

- \* CONTEXTUAL - (historical/philosophical/political)  
The immediate context of the project in recipient countries; the goals of the project within the ethos of education in the co-operating countries; political aspects at national and institutional levels with respect to aid and to educational management training.
- \* OPERATIONAL - (organisational/sociological/economic)  
Defining the operational context; organisational structures - the nature of project linkages; functioning of various groupings in the project; the

- inputs involved; the organisational processes; economic issues (project costs - actual & opportunity)
- \* CURRICULAR - (pedagogical/cultural/psychological)
  - The project materials in relation to local needs; training/learning ethos and norms; attitudes to training/learning
- \* OUTCOMES - (evaluation/assessment)
  - Details of formative and summative evaluation (where undertaken); outcomes - planned and unplanned

The analysis of the case study in Chapter Four, presented a considerable challenge. As can be imagined, there was a wealth of factual data from the project desk research and field visits, and further supplementary material was derived from impressionistic information based on numerous observations and discussions which took place with people involved in the project at various times. In addition, the writer carried out lengthy, separate informal interviews with the project director and a representative of the sponsoring agency in early 1987.

It was difficult to identify and select a particular viewpoint as being the best and most appropriate one for analysing the project data. Indeed, the previous discussion on basic considerations surrounding evaluation suggests that it would be most valuable to draw on a range of theoretical perspectives. Such perspectives need not be mutually exclusive and a number might contribute towards a better understanding of the topic. These conceptual frameworks will be discussed further in Chapter Four, specifically those deriving from systems thinking and theories of change on which the case study analysis is based.

#### The synthesis and conclusions

The critical examination of the ITWEAMM project assesses the impact of a materials development strategy and the inferences to be derived from the case study on factors contributing towards success. The final chapter draws on these lessons, together with pertinent strategic lessons derived from the literature review, and draws conclusions on the key research question. These conclusions are presented as the strategic decisions and issues which need to be taken

into consideration by those (at the international-political, international-professional, national-political and national-professional levels) concerned with international assistance to Third World educational management training.

### 1.3.3. THE LIMITATIONS AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE THESIS

Certain limitations of the thesis have been made explicit in the discussion of the scope of literature review. Others are implicit in some of the comments made regarding the subjective nature of the study; in particular, the extent to which the acquisition of some data has been fortuitous. Certainly the study is based on a series of ad hoc snapshots of occurrences, rather than on any more formal diachronic study of all possible elements involved. There was never any chance, within the period of the TIWEAMM project, that opportunities would arise to do otherwise. However there is nothing unique in the fact that there was no choice amongst the possible alternative project evaluation designs which, in the best of all possible worlds, might have been chosen. In many project evaluations, field conditions impose limitations on the kinds of studies which might be successfully carried to completion.

More important, is the question of the writer's ability to present a detached and critical account of the research project as a case study. There are a number of facets to this. Firstly, the need to report 'true' facts - and every attempt has been made to achieve this through utilising project documentation and not relying on memory. Secondly, a potentially greater source of bias lies in the selection of data and the critical and self-critical discussion of project processes. It is hoped that an awareness of these hazards, together with the fact that over a year has lapsed since completion of the project, has made for an adequate degree of 'objectivity'. However, no actual evidence for this can be offered. As for the interpretations of case study experiences - these are necessarily a personal view. Some issues are given precedence over others because the thesis is ultimately concerned with policy issues and, as such, has implications for multilateral and bilateral assistance in this and related areas. What is aimed for,

is to offer insights into some of the processes involved in international assistance to Third World educational management training; insights gained through a four year immersion by the writer in an innovative research and materials development project.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THE STUDY IN PERSPECTIVE - A LITERATURE REVIEW

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The second chapter reviews the literature starting with a discussion of contextual issues surrounding educational management training. This is followed by an examination of the scope, nature and impact of present training provision in both Third World countries and the west. Reference is made to experiences in other areas, including public administration and management training. The chapter concludes with a consideration of some recent discussions on educational innovation and international assistance.

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#### 2.1 EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING IN CONTEXT

##### 2.1.1 THE 'WORLD EDUCATIONAL CRISIS'

###### Management and training on the international educational agenda

The 'International Conference on the World Crisis in Education' held in 1967, brought together educational leaders from 52 countries to discuss the state of education development world wide. The conference working paper provided a detailed analysis of educational systems, and in drawing conclusions for future strategy for improvement, the modernisation of educational management was seen as a priority target. There was substantial agreement that:

... unless educational systems are well equipped with appropriately trained managers, the transition of education from its semi-handicraft state to a modern condition is not likely to happen. Instead the educational crisis will grow steadily worse. (Coombs, 1968, p. 168).

The need to improve and strengthen educational management to better achieve developmental goals in the Third World has received growing recognition over the past two decades. Many writers both before and after Coombs' influential publication have drawn attention to administrative failings, and identified the need for reform

and improvements in management (e.g. Beeby, 1966; Curle, 1969; Guruge, 1969; Faure, 1972; Wandira, 1972; Lyons, 1977).

More recently, Coombs has re-examined the state of educational development (Coombs, 1985). He traces the changes which took place in developmental thinking and policies in the seventies, with the rise of a broader people-oriented notion of the nature and objectives of development and parallel shifts in educational strategies and priorities. These emphasise efforts to improve relevance, quality and efficiency, and to this end, he stresses the importance of efforts to enable developing countries to strengthen their basic information, analytical, planning and management capacities in the whole field of education (Coombs, 1985).

The International Bureau of Education's 37th International Conference on Education was on the theme, 'Improvement of the Organisation and Management of Educational Systems - as a means of raising efficiency in order to extend the right to education'. The Conference identified the selection and training of administrative personnel as one of the key elements to improvement, and recommended that staff training be institutionalised to provide proper support for training in order to help maintain a strong administrative cadre (IBE, 1980).

Educational management development has also been on the agenda of meetings amongst Commonwealth member countries and the Commonwealth Secretariat has been actively engaged over the years in a range of activities concerned specifically with the development of educational management and managers. The 5th and 6th Commonwealth Education Conferences of 1971 and 1974 drew attention to the need to train administrators, and the 8th conference recommended support for exploring the development and expansion of regional training capabilities (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1980). These concerns and activities have continued into the eighties.

Much of the ample documentation on the wide range of initiatives concerned with educational management improvement in the Third World, derives from and/or discusses the work of international agencies such as Unesco



and the World Bank. The policy statements of these and other agencies have increasingly highlighted the importance of activities in this area and helped to ensure that educational management and training are firmly on the international agenda.

Unesco tackles educational management problems and related training issues through its headquarters in Paris and at its regional offices in Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Latin America. In addition, it established the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris as a major centre for training and research. The continuing priority given to this area is revealed in Unesco's 1984-89 Medium Term Plan, which includes in its targets:

... to contribute to the improvement of the educational planning and administration process, in particular through taking into consideration research findings in the educational sciences and social sciences, and to promote the designing of integrated education and training plans. (Unesco, 1983, p. 106).

Likewise, the World Bank is giving a high priority to educational management improvement. The 1980 Education Sector Paper drew attention to the importance of the development of national capacities for the analysis, design and management of an education system (World Bank, 1980). Altogether, two thirds of the Bank financed educational projects during their financial years 1963-1983 included some form of assistance in strengthening managerial capability (Noor, 1985). Major undertakings include support in establishing national staff training institutes.

Regional development banks, such as the African Development Bank, are also committed to human resource development and, recognising the problem of managerial inadequacies, give particular attention to educational management training (ADB, 1986). Multilateral agencies are not alone in their concern with educational management improvement - it is also a priority with many bilateral agencies. Moreover, it is evident that improving management systems in education is high on both donor and recipient country agendas. (Hawes and Coombe, 1986, p. 49).

### The universal nature of the debate

Concern with the need for management improvement is by no means confined to the Third World - indeed the Coombsian diagnosis was of a world crisis. Writers in the west have considered the pressures facing educational systems and noted the implications for management and management development of issues such as: the decline in enrollments, resources and confidence in social institutions including educational ones; the growth in complexity, ambiguity and demands for accountability; the general pressures of a changing and often adverse environment (e.g. Dalin, 1980; Culbertson, 1979a; Farquhar, 1978).

Such challenges reflect fundamental changes within society as a whole, as well as within the education system, such as advances in communications technology, shifts in attitudes towards work and leisure, and more general economic and social uncertainties. These are not new challenges but it seems that dissatisfaction with prior approaches to tackle them has led to increasing attention being given to the role and impact of professional development and training. This has been the focus of debate at a number of international gatherings.

Numerous opportunities exist for international discussion of educational management issues. A major forum is the four yearly International Intervisitation Programme in educational administration. The first IIP held in 1966, was organised by the University Council of Educational Administration of America. Attendance reflected its western origins, indeed prior discussions had revealed that most members felt it desirable to retain some cultural homogeneity. Thus it was suggested that problems associated with recruiting and preparing educational administrators in the west were substantially different from those in Third World countries. Nevertheless, a number of the basic issues surrounding educational administrator preparation which were highlighted at the IIP, were felt to transcend international boundaries. This included questions concerning student selection, when training should occur, the purposes of training, the content of preparation programmes, and the common elements in preparation programmes (Baron, 1969). It

is notable that the more recent IIP's, in Nigeria in 1982 (Ukeje, 1986) and Fiji in 1986, were truly international.

An ever increasing number of countries, both developed and developing, are establishing specialised educational management or administration associations. In Commonwealth countries this has been largely stimulated by the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA). The CCEA was established in 1970 as a non-governmental association partly funded by the Commonwealth Foundation. It now has worldwide membership with affiliated national associations. Its main concern is information exchange. The most recent regional conference in 1985 was on the theme 'The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas' (Marshall and Newton, 1986). The CCEA has initiated a number of valuable documents devoted to the problems and issues of educational management and administrator preparation which have been published by the Commonwealth Secretariat (e.g. Hughes, 1981).

The topic of management training has also been high on the agenda of a number of European gatherings. The Council of Europe provided a forum for detailed discussion and analysis on issues relating to training at its 1982 Educational Research Workshop on 'Training for Management in Schools' (Hegarty, 1983). In the same year, the Association for Teacher Education in Europe held a Seminar on 'Training for Heads (School Leaders) in Europe' (ATEE, 1982).

A more comprehensive initiative is the 'International School Improvement Project' (ISIP) spearheaded by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The aim of the project, which commenced in 1983, is to facilitate improved knowledge of and insights into the functioning of school improvement processes and to contribute to the development of skills within various levels of educational administration and decision-making (CERI, 1984). One strand of activities focuses on principals as internal change agents in the school improvement process and a series of papers, seminars and workshops have examined issues surrounding the role of the principal and school leader training (CERI, 1985; Hopes, 1986).

The ISIP project involves a range of international activities in and between OECD countries and raises interesting questions concerning the role and value of collaborative and/or comparative national, inter-regional and international research projects. The comparative approach has been widely adopted as the framework for many published studies in order to formulate concepts from multi-national data, (e.g. Miklos, 1974; Farquhar, 1980; Friesen, 1980; Culbertson, 1979b; Stone, 1982; Buckley, 1985).

Applications of the conclusions arising from such studies will however be constrained until there has been a more detailed analysis of the universality of many of the underlying theories and concepts. Thus as Miklos warns, whilst certain issues would appear to be international:

...answers already developed to these questions in some educational systems should be reviewed as carefully as those being considered by the systems which as yet have not developed strategies for coping with problems of administrator preparation. (Miklos, 1974, p. 108).

There are undoubtedly many common problems which can usefully be discussed at international gatherings. But, any consideration of the development of educational managers and administrators must be made within the context of the specific policies and practices - with respect to recruitment, qualifications, selection and appointment and training - and with an understanding of the nature of the administrative and organisational systems and the role, functions, tasks and activities of the groups concerned (Miklos, 1974).

Even within the west, these practices will differ and whilst many of the critical issues being raised concerning training are not unique to any one country (Neave, 1982) there is little advantage to be gained by transferring, piecemeal, ideas and solutions from Europe to America or vice versa (Culbertson, 1979b; Schuster, 1976); or indeed within Europe. Thus Esp (1982) found in his comparative study of European headship training that national structures and circumstances are so varied that the idea of a European programme of training for heads had no support.

## 2.1.2 EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT POLICIES AND PRACTICES

### Administrative structures and functions

A major international comparative study on the training of school administrators and supervisors was undertaken by Miklos for Unesco (Miklos, 1974). The study, based on an examination of relevant documents and literature, presents a valuable analysis of the relationships between educational systems, organisational structures, administrator characteristics, personnel policies and training provision.

Miklos characterises six types of educational administrative structures, giving representative countries for each. The administrative organisation of education systems reflects a variety of trends such as, decentralisation, the greater co-ordination of previously decentralised systems, democratisation of systems, redefinition of roles, the quality of the teaching force and the extent and degree of innovation and reform. Whilst noting that this attempt at categorisation is likely to result in oversimplification he nevertheless maintains that some attempt to compare and contrast structures must be made since it is basic to a discussion of the roles and preparation of administrative personnel. He illustrates this by identifying four broad groups of administrative and supervisory personnel according to their location - central administrators, ministry administrators in the field, the district level administrator, and the school level administrator - and looks at these in terms of their functions, responsibilities and tasks, drawing attention to the training implications. A somewhat similar analysis is given by Gurugé (1969) who discusses the training needs of educational administrative personnel according to the five levels of: policy-making, executive, intermediate, operational-supervisory and operational.

Different levels of administrators (managers) will have different functions within the system. A number of approaches can be adopted for building up administrator profiles. One way is to analyse educational administration and management in terms of the task areas and the categories of specific activities which must be performed by an

administrator if an institution or system is to achieve its purpose. Thus the areas of administrative responsibility of a school head, could be listed as including: curriculum instruction, staff personnel, pupil personnel, support management, school-community interface, resource management, system-wide policies and operations (e.g. Project ASK, 1981). An important point however, is that the emphasis on each area will change as the system grows and evolves, and as there are changes in national policy and practice. For example, decisions to 'abolish' primary school fees, or re-organise secondary school budgetary arrangements have implications for the tasks and hence the skills required of a school head. Similarly, there will be differences in emphasis for each area between school types and sizes within a system (Hopes, 1982).

An alternative conceptualisation is to view administration and management in terms of 'process'. This was one of the first approaches selected for attempting to theorise about management. Thus Fayol (1949), in describing the essential management processes considered planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating, and controlling to be the main elements of managing. Over the years other writers have extended this list identifying further components of the process, and describing the management cycle in terms of an input-output model. However Hughes (1986) advocates caution in applying these concepts to education, not the least because of the difficulties in identifying educational goals and objectives, and the problems surrounding planning and evaluation in education.

In a further helpful analysis of school administration, Miklos (1975) suggests that although the activities and responsibilities of administrators are clarified by using either a task or process conceptualisation, a combination of the two perspectives can be more useful in identifying the precise functions which personnel should attempt to fulfil in each task area. He presents such an analysis using a matrix of six operational areas of educational administration (school programme, pupil personnel, staff personnel, community relations, physical facilities, management) and seven process components

(planning, decision making, organising, co-ordinating, communicating, influencing and evaluating). An example from such a matrix might highlight the organising component 'assigning teaching duties' in the area of 'staff personnel'. Miklos concludes:

Hopefully, these analyses will contribute to a self-assessment of the contributions which administrators are making to the effective operation of schools. (1975, p. 76).

Much of the recent literature on school management has drawn attention to the multi-dimensional, complex and dynamic nature of school leadership (e.g. Stego, 1976; Webb & Lyons, 1982). The findings of surveys of the work patterns of headteachers in England and elsewhere reveal the enormous number of tasks to be performed each day and the brevity, variety and fragmentation of the total activity patterns (Glatter, 1983). Reports of American research (Schmuck, 1982), suggest that heads actually spend 65 per cent of their time in face to face interaction.

So far, this sub-section has drawn on western literature. There has been little widely published data on the profiles of educational managers in developing countries. An exception is the recent study reported by Kogoé (1986) which explored administrative needs and skills of school leaders in Togo using a sample of 400 school administrators. An interesting but incomplete comparative study of school principals was undertaken by Stone before his death, which drew on data supplied by researchers in 11 countries (Australia, Brazil, Canada, India, Kenya, Korea, Sri Lanka, Sweden, UK, USA and West Germany). The aim of the study was to compare the demographic and professional profiles for secondary school heads, using sample data on: classroom teaching and administrative experience, preparation and training, duties performed and school characteristics. Significant differences were found in selected aspects of these profiles, particularly with respect to such things as teaching duties; thus 40 per cent of Kenya heads reported spending more than half their time in teaching, whereas 94.3 per cent of Korean heads reported that they had no involvement in teaching (Stone, 1982).

A series of unpublished Unesco case studies on the role of school principals in INSET throw some light on heads' tasks (synthesis report by Greenland, 1983). It seems that in a number of Third World countries a greater amount of time is spent in performing administrative tasks than in performing a professional/pedagogical role. Thus the Philippines case study outlines how the burden of administrative tasks "makes it impossible for an untiring principal to do or perform her main task - observation of teachers for improved competencies and instruction" (Sutaria, 1980).

What can perhaps be concluded is that whilst administrator profiles will differ across national boundaries, there is little doubt that there are certain universally applicable functions and tasks including those requiring basic analytical, decision-making, problem-solving and human-relations skills. Equally, the precise role of educational managers in a particular country will itself evolve over time, in response to internal and external changes (eg. in policies and in demands for accountability). Moreover, in a world of rapid and unpredictable change, a more creative and dynamic role is required (Hughes, 1986).

#### Approaches to administrative improvement

There is a range of approaches towards administrative and management improvement. Lack of adequately trained personnel may only be one, and as Tibi (1979) suggests, possibly a minor constraint to the satisfactory planning and administration of educational services. Other problems may be of a much more severe character. An analysis will help to determine the precise nature of the problems and constraints being encountered in the educational system, be they quantitative or qualitative and in respect of structural and/or performance weaknesses. A thorough diagnosis will enable the most appropriate approach to improvement to be selected, this may or may not involve training, possibly as part of a general programme of reform.

In carrying out educational reforms the attention given to administrative reform as an essential instrument of educational development has been limited (Duran, 1977).



Moreover, the structuralist approach which seeks to solve problems by a renewal of formal structures, has often linked the reform of educational administration with that of public administration when, for example, steps are being taken towards decentralising the system. However, Duran contends, such efforts cannot by themselves solve the problems of educational administration - reform must be part of a systematic plan, involving detailed consideration of personnel policies, recruitment and promotion and the provision of comprehensive training embracing all echelons of the system.

Renon (1977) has also highlighted the importance of formulating recruitment and training plans hand in hand with the study and application of administrative reform. There is a common mistake, he suggests of separating training policy from revision of recruitment procedures and too often educational officials see solutions to problems in educational terms; when a deficiency is noted they tend to remedy it by establishing a new type of formal training. Moreover as Lungu observes:

... training of administrators will not by itself result in the effective management of African educational institutions. Concomitant reforms are required to accommodate new orientations and skills of professionally trained personnel (1983, p. 95).

A similar point is made by Chinapah and Lofstedt in their survey of educational planning problems in developing countries. Having identified that 'lack of management competence' was a key problem area in the 25 countries surveyed, they argue for more research and warn that:

It is possible that so far attention has been directed at the distribution and implementation of training at the expense of the administration and management machinery itself (1982, p. 25).

### 2.1.3 PERSONNEL POLICIES AND TRAINING POLICIES

#### Personnel Policies

An essential pre-requisite for administrative and management improvement is a detailed understanding of the characteristics of personnel; an examination of recruitment

and selection procedures is particularly illuminating. Throughout the world the career path into educational administration is invariably via the teaching profession. Andrews (1980) suggests four descriptive models, reflecting a variety of conditions in the way school administrators are selected and trained. Thus the 'Non-Professional' model selects people as school administrators without regard to any professional background or training and does not usually provide in-service training; the 'Non-Educational' model describes situations where administrators do not have a background or training in education, although they may be professionals of other kinds; the 'Generic Professional' is based on the teaching profession where administrators are promoted from the pool of experienced teachers, and sometimes receive a basis of in-service training; and the 'Specialist Professional' model portrays the educational administrator as a sub-profession growing out of the teaching profession, i.e. through careers starting with university training specialising in programmes of educational administration.

Having set out these models, Andrews considers their implications and whether they represent stages of development, progressing inevitably toward the specialist professional model. There is certainly evidence of an increasing movement toward specialisation and one factor causing this is the drive to acquire more paper qualifications. The specialist professional model has however come under increasing attack because of the credibility of the body of knowledge which makes up graduate programmes (e.g. Hills, 1980; Bone, 1982). The speed of progress towards this model will, maintains Andrews, depend upon the strengthening of the field of study.

The generic professional model is common in Europe where there has been a considerable expansion of in-service provision and in promoting continuing education of school heads (Buckley, 1985). Experience alone is no longer seen as sufficient (Hughes, 1986). Comparing routes into school headship, Hughes (1979), notes that many in Britain vigorously challenge the traditional view that practical on-the-job experience on its own provides adequate management

training in education. Similarly, a recent survey of heads in five European countries found widespread recognition that school leadership can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability. The various pressures on heads arising from demands for participation, consultation, and accountability are well recognised and heads need to be trained in the skills of school leadership (Esp, 1982).

In America however, there is still considerable emphasis on pre-service training for school leaders and the specialist professional is increasingly the norm. There has also been some interest in the non-educational model, with a federally funded National Program for Educational Leadership designed to recruit and prepare established non-educational leaders for entry into school administration. According to Cunningham (1972), this programme revealed that previous experience is not a prerequisite to administrative success. Similarly, Inbar analyses the current prerequisites for school principals in America and concludes that the basic requirement that principals be experienced teachers is inappropriate. On the contrary:

... principals should be selected from a reservoir wider than the teaching profession, subjected to criteria pertinent to principalship, and more thoroughly trained in all dimensions of its functions (1982, p. 185).

The possibility of recruiting from outside the profession has also been suggested in relation to developing country needs (Coombs, 1968). Where such practices are adopted (usually in the higher echelons of the system), some sort of orientation for administrators is essential to avoid the conflict between the professionals and the administrators. An example of this is cited by Hughes (1979) with reference to the generalist administrators in some Nigerian State Ministries of Education. Here, conflict was alleviated by the introduction of professional administrators who were also specialist (educationalists) professionals. Similarly in some states in India which operate a 50:50 recruitment policy for district education officers, particular attention is paid to preparing those with a non-education background for their

role as educational administrators.

In many Third World countries until recently, a mix of the generic and the non-professional models has been the norm. Indeed, the North American practice of certifying administrators for various school roles is virtually unknown in Anglophone Africa, suggests Lungu (1983), although this could have certain advantages. However as Marshall (1983, p. 36) points out, since university based graduate programs appear to be the basis of the 'specialist' training in Andrews' model, this may not be suitable to the needs of developing countries: "the appropriateness of this model is contingent upon the development of indigenous content and delivery mechanisms".

The policies which govern the recruitment and selection of administrators and managers will reflect the different structures of educational systems and the divisions of authority across levels and between sub-systems. There is evidently wide variation in practices across the world as Greenland found in his synthesis of a series of Unesco case studies on headship roles in in-service training (Greenland, 1983). The cases, which included the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Hungary, Yugoslavia and America, covered routes into headship. On the basis of these reports and a survey of in-service education and training activities in thirteen Anglophone countries, Greenland distinguished three patterns: firstly, those like the USA and Philippines where anybody appointed to headship has to have a task-related higher degree, together with basic teaching qualifications and a prescribed length of service; secondly, countries where on-the-job training for heads has recently been made compulsory, such as France in 1974, Sweden in 1976; and thirdly, the large category of 'others' where there is no prescribed training although some might be available. A key feature of this last category is that there is rarely any clear policy on recruitment and selection.

In many countries the promotion of administrators is more related to teaching merit, age and seniority, than suitability to the job (Bernede, 1976). In some countries it is admitted that political considerations predominate, or that the system adopted lacks consistency (Greenland, 1983).

Other elements of personnel policy also need to be given careful attention. Thus Lyons (1977) highlights both the importance of recognising the close relationship between training and personnel policies and the need to consider all aspects of personnel matters from pay and incentives to work arrangements. Gurugé(1969) discusses the problems of promotion, recruitment, staffing etc., stating that whatever method of recruitment is employed, an adequate preparation for the duties of the post is a sine qua non. Lungu (1983) also argues for systematic training and some form of certification, observing that in many African Ministries of Education, educational personnel policies and practices are hopelessly chaotic and practices are outdated. Often the older administrators are jealous of young well trained administrators, and suggests Lungu, "the long term effect of amateurism adds to the confusion regarding the effective deployment of new professionals like educational administrators" (1983, p. 93).

#### Training policies

The literature reveals the recognition being given in many countries to the importance of considering training action within the context of overall national objectives and reforms, manpower planning and personnel policies (e.g. Lyons 1977, Singh and Gurugé, 1977). Attention has been drawn to the urgency of defining short and medium term policies and preparing integral programmes on the recruitment, pre-service and in-service training of educational administrators as part of broader educational development and administrative reform plans, and within national processes and policies on economic, social and cultural development (Unesco, Oreac, 1978).

Unesco has mounted major initiatives through its regional offices to help encourage the formulation of national policies, and the promotion of training activities. Thus the Unesco/UNDP projects - the 'Educational Planning and Management Project' in Asia (Unesco, Roep, 1980), and Coforpa, the 'Project for Regional Co-operation for Training and Research in Educational Planning and Administration' in Africa (Unesco,

Coforpa, 1984), aim to encourage the development of new programmes and enhance the capability of national institutes for training educational personnel. Commonwealth Secretariat seminars concerned with educational management development have also highlighted the need for national training policies (e.g. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981), and it was a key concern amongst donors and recipients at the Windsor Conference on 'Educational Priorities and Aid Responses in Sub-Saharan Africa' organised by the University of London Institute of Education and the ODA (Hawes and Coombe, 1986).

It is clear that an increasing number of governments have begun formulating coherent national policies for educational administrative improvement. One of the first to do so was India which has one of the longest running staff colleges for educational administrator training, the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration in India (NIEPA), which was originally a Unesco sponsored Asian Institute. In the mid-sixties, the Indian Education Commission recommended the establishment of a college, and NIEPA has for the past two decades played an important role in building up the capabilities of different levels of educational functionaries. In describing the role of NIEPA, Singhal (1983) draws particular attention to the emphasis laid on relating programmes to the goals and objectives of planned economic development in general and to those of the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980 - 1985) of the Government of India.

A national training policy is essential for ensuring informed decisions about: priority target groups; budgetary provisions; appropriate agencies and strategies; the necessary mix between mandatory and optional courses and between in-service and pre-service provision; the accreditation of courses and benefits of attending; and many other related factors (e.g. Renon, 1981).

The identification and selection of priority personnel for training both within the education system as a whole and among the administrator cadre itself is a critical issue. A significant determinant could be an assessment of where the greatest multiplier effect lies within the educational



system (Hughes, 1981). Such a criterion would suggest that greatest attention should be paid to middle-tier management, that is: principals, inspectors, subject advisers and curriculum developers, and district education officers (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1982). The report on the Windsor conference also highlights that the main need in staff development is to train the 'enablers', commenting:

Emphasis on management training is nowhere more vital than at local level for it is that crucial group of middle level personnel which probably exercise the greatest influence on quality (Hawes & Coombe, 1986, p.65)

Moreover, as Prakasha (1975) notes, this priority group has tended to be disregarded, with past training programmes being essentially for senior educational administrators.

A further policy issue which must be faced is the precise status to be given to training. More often than not this is seen as being reflected in the recognition or otherwise which is given to any resulting qualification for promotion and/or salary purposes. Qualifications are seen as essential incentives - for without some sort of recognition for specialist, job-oriented training, there is limited inducement to the potential trainee in attending any voluntary courses. Thus the 1979 International Conference on Education (IBE, 1980), included amongst its specific recommendations on training, that a practical scheme of incentives (including non-financial rewards) should be devised to attract candidates for training.

The issue of incentives is particularly significant to INSET activities. It seems that few countries have resolved the issues of certification, selection or inducements for attending in-service courses. Thus Greenland, commenting on the teacher education field, argues that the appropriateness of the inducements and benefits is crucial to the success of any INSET activity. His study of INSET in Anglophone African countries showed that while out-of-pocket expenses incurred by heads attending courses were invariably reimbursed, there were on the whole no financial benefits in terms of salary increments arising from the training (Greenland, 1982).

Often a problem is lack of clear policy guidelines and confusion between the various parties involved; e.g. different departments in the Ministry or Ministries. (Greenland found in the INSET Africa study that responsibilities for decisions and initiatives concerning training vary considerably from country to country). A major advantage in having a coherent training policy is that it can help encourage and ensure co-ordination between agencies involved in training and the educational system at large. This is important, for as Glatter observes (1972), effective training is difficult without the active co-operation and support of administrators, just because the nature of educational administration requires that effective learning experiences be devised for people in training.

Glatter is writing from a western perspective and it is clear that the lack of integration of training and personnel policies is just as much an issue in the west as it is in Third World countries (McHugh, 1979; Morgan, 1983; Hegarty, 1983). In the UK, it was only in 1982 that the government-backed head management training initiative got underway. The National Development Centre for School Management Training (NDC) is part of a major management training initiative set up under government circular 3/83 (DES, 1983) which stated:

The Secretary of State sees a pressing need for headteachers and other senior teachers carrying out management functions to be better equipped for their increasingly difficult and complicated tasks.

The NDC locates management training within the wider concept and processes of management development, reflecting a view that training by itself is not the only route to administrative improvement. 'Partnership' is a key feature, involving close co-operation with local education authorities. This has helped change attitudes in some authorities, such that they now more actively support management development and initiate training activities themselves (Bolan, 1986). NDC represented a major policy commitment to training. Needless to say it has not been without its detractors. Policy by itself is not enough; attention needs also to be given to its implementation.



## 2.2 THE SCOPE AND NATURE OF PRESENT TRAINING PROVISION

The international scene is characterised by considerable diversity in provision, not only from one country to another but also within countries. It is moreover, a scene which is constantly changing and there have been many new initiatives in recent years. Much of this activity focuses on the provision of headship training, as the literature reviewed below reveals.

### 2.2.1 TRAINING PROVISION IN THE WEST

#### The scope

The development of educational administration courses in the UK is traced by Bone (1982) who places the awakening of interest in such training in the late 1960's (later than in America). At this time provision - mainly a range of short courses - was in the hands of practitioners and its adequacy and validity was often questioned (e.g. Baron, 1969; Walker, 1973). Increasing attention was given to the need to develop a knowledge base which the administrator should possess (Taylor, 1969), and this led to the development of educational administration studies in Universities. In the early eighties, a survey highlighted the diversity UK provision and concluded that there was a need for greater co-operation between the various agencies involved and for some form of co-ordinating body (Hughes, 1982). Subsequently the Department of Education and Science (DES) launched the previously mentioned '3/83' initiative and funded the NDC. This resulted in some consolidation of the previously fragmented provision, and an expansion in national provision (of both short and longer courses) for heads at a range of designated training institutions (NDC, 1985). Since the introduction of new INSET funding arrangements in April 1987, uncertainty surrounds future developments in this area and some believe that there will be a trend towards shorter courses and modularised provision (NDC, 1987).

The scope of training provision for heads or prospective heads in the rest of Europe is also impressive. In some countries this is compulsory (e.g. France and Sweden) and in most other European countries, non compulsory

and usually heavily over-subscribed courses are available. It is evident that recent years have seen massive expansion in headship training (Dalín, 1980; Esp, 1982; ATEE, 1982; Hegarty, 1983; Buckley, 1985; Bailey, 1986).

Training provision outside of Europe has also expanded rapidly. There have been numerous surveys of North American provision (e.g. Farquhar and Piele, 1972; Silver, 1978; Culbertson, 1979b; Hills, 1980; Pitner, 1982; Williams, 1982), and of training provision in other continents; e.g. Australia (Seagren, 1979; Hird, 1982). What these studies reveal is that provision is extensive, it is extremely fragmented and there are many questions being raised concerning the effectiveness of the courses and the extent to which provision is meeting needs (e.g. Hills, 1980).

#### Patterns of provision

A key issue, widely discussed in the literature, is where and when training should take place. Many factors will determine the pattern and nature of training provision including: the purpose and objectives of training (induction, retraining for new roles, refresher, orientation, upgrading, academic etc.); the nature and characteristics of the target group; the administrative context, policies and practices; and numerous practical considerations such as availability of resources and trainers.

Debates about the relative merits of alternative patterns of provision have been going on for many years. It is interesting to note that in Britain, early moves to take preparation away from practitioners (the short how-to-do-it in-service courses of the sixties) and place it with academics (the longer more theoretical pre-service courses), are now being somewhat reversed. This, suggests Bone (1982), is due to the increasing doubts about the suitability of the theoretical bias of university courses. (This issue will be further explored in section 2.3.2, page 89.)

Many commentators argue that conventional pre-service training in schools of education worldwide has yet to resolve the issue of the appropriate balance between theoretical and practical approaches, and long and short

courses. The long-award bearing course may provide the key (certification) to more rapid promotion, but may not equip the practising or shortly to be practising administrators with the necessary skills, competencies, knowledge and attitudes to tackle their immediate tasks. On the other hand, as Hills (1980) suggests, the provision of short courses is an incomplete solution because such courses do not provide a long enough period of time for the practising of skills or the internalisation of values.

A further perspective on the issue is to look at provision in terms of the difference between the needs of the system and those of the individual, although these will not necessarily be in conflict (Garvey, 1987). Significantly, recent trends in INSET have been concerned with both institutional and individual development, looking beyond trainees' needs towards support for the process of school improvement and wider system policies (Bailey, 1986).

Bolam (1981) develops a model to illustrate how the alternative combinations of system requirements and individual needs vary according to the purpose of any training activity (for teachers). He argues that a degree in educational studies is more likely to satisfy an individual's needs whereas school-focused INSET is most likely to satisfy system requirements. Furthermore, INSET offers a more flexible approach and a cost-effective means of meeting the immediate and changing needs of educational managers. It is essential for equipping personnel with skills, to solve the problems posed by changing structures, changing relationship between education and the community and within the system, and educational reforms and innovations (Greenland, 1983).

In actuality, there is often only a thin grey line between the continuing in-service and pre-service education of educational personnel and they can be planned to complement each other. The importance of developing a planned, systematic and continuous programme for the development of school managers, involving both long and short term provision has been stressed by many writers (e.g. Lutz, 1972; March, 1974; Andrews, 1980; Hughes, 1982; Leithwood, 1983). Ideally it should not be a question of

either/or, as Hughes observes:

... experience appears to suggest that, in the longer term, it is helpful to regard short training opportunities and more extended periods of professional development as complementary rather than alternative types of provision. Together they can bring about significant improvement in administrative performance. (1986, p. 16).

It is evident that the nature of present provision of all types has changed considerably over the years and most recently there has also been a growth in the pursuit of alternative strategies of training provision and the examination of approaches to improvement that go beyond the formal training concept (e.g. Buckley, 1985).

#### Alternative Approaches to Administrative Improvement

Training is only one of a number of solutions that can be adopted to equip the administration with the managerial and technical know-how it requires. There is a growing recognition in the west, and indeed in those Third World countries with a longer history of educational management training, that formal training has not fulfilled its promise in terms of improved performance. This has resulted in some disenchantment with training itself.

The questioning of the training panacea is not confined to education systems; its origins can be found in the business management training sector. In the sixties a renowned evaluation study carried out in America amongst senior executives in industry revealed considerable scepticism of the relevance of management training (Mant, 1969). In the UK, the British Institute of Management and the Confederation of British Industry commissioned the classic and influential study of 1970 (BIM, 1971), which confirmed prevailing criticisms of management education as being too academic and lacking a practical skills orientation. Similar concerns are expressed in the literature on the impact of public administration training for development (e.g. Reilly, 1979; Mathur, 1983).

The current re-appraisal of educational management training provision has resulted in a search for the

conditions under which training might be qualitatively improved to make it more effective and efficient. It has also led to the consideration of alternative approaches for personnel, organisational, and system development (many adopted from the business management training sector).

A major criticism of educational management training is that it all too frequently is a top down strategy (Bolam, 1981), and adopts a too rigid approach in contrast with 'education' and 'development'. A number of writers now caution against a narrow, classroom-based view of training, and propose a 'continuing education' view of professional and management development (e.g. Bolam, 1986). Managerial skills and qualities can be acquired by many means; modelling, planned and vicarious discovery, exchange of ideas, workshops, self development, organisational development, job rotation, team building, and various combinations of these and other approaches (Glatter, 1983). An increasing number of examples can now be found of initiatives which take educational management training beyond the conventional limits of pre-service or in-service training (Bailey, 1986). Helt (1982) describes the French model which provides principals with a variety of experiences over a period of three months, which includes formal courses (with course-sessions on themes relevant to management, administration and organisation), periods of observation in industrial and commercial management, and periods of visitations to other schools and related educational institutions.

The School Leaders Education Programme in Sweden (SLP) is the most notable innovative project in this field. Funded by the government to provide leadership development to all school heads, it is seen as the cornerstone in the decentralisation and democratisation process within the school system. The project adopts a change strategy which combines continuous study sandwiched with courses, visits, seminars, and on-going support services during the two year period of the (compulsory) participation. Such a strategy will, it is hoped, encourage a process of personal and interactive development which would not be possible if training was compressed into a single unit (SLP, 1982).

There is a strong element of organisational development in the Swedish programme, with its focus on the school leader and his or her school. This contrasts with most management training, education and development where activities are focused on the individual. The problem with traditional training approaches, it is argued, is that the individual works in an organisation and cannot readily apply new knowledge or skills without affecting others. This results in the so-called 'transfer problem', the inability to transfer the individual learning and improve organisational performance. The 'organisational development' (OD) approach, attempts to overcome this problem.

The standard definition of OD is that given by Schmuck and Miles (1971) as being, a planned and sustained effort to apply behavioural science for system improvement, using reflective self-analytical methods. Miles systematically tested OD in schools in America and published the seminal work Innovation in Education (Miles, 1964), but its first major impact was a result of the work of Schmuck and his associates at University of Oregon with the publication of the classic texts, Organisational Development in Schools (Schmuck and Miles, 1971) and Handbook of Organisational Development (Schmuck and Runkel, 1972).

One can trace the development of OD back to the social psychology writings of Kurt Lewin (1947) and the National Training Laboratory, and through to the emergence of T-group work in America in the 1950's. OD's origins are with applications in industry, in an American context. Its application both in education, and in Europe, has given rise to considerable controversy. For example, Derr (1976) maintains that the organisational characteristics of schools are incompatible with a number of OD concepts. In contrast, Hopkins (1982) argues that just because educational organisations exhibit characteristics such as goal diffusiveness, non-competitiveness and boundary management problems, they are prime targets for the OD approach.

Organisational development represented a shift away from the individual to the group and the institution. There is now some backlash, with attempts to focus on the personal development of the individual. Advocates of this trend,

commend a range of approaches to be used for individual development including secondments, study visits, distance learning, and action learning (Glatter, 1983). This movement derives from the management education field, where many writers advocate personal responsibility and the self-development approach (e.g. Revans, 1971; Burgoyne, 1978). Most recently, discussions have suggested the need for a more comprehensive approach combining both individual and institution development (e.g. Pedler, 1985). In education there is evidence that a new model of school improvement and change is emerging in OECD countries and the United States (Bolan, 1982). This is reflected in the studies and publications resulting from ISIP (eg. Hopkins, 1985; Van Velszen, 1985; Hopes, 1986).

School improvement requires school-focused evaluation, and in this 'in-school evaluation' model, school staff themselves, rather than an external evaluator are responsible for deciding what is to be evaluated, how, and whether or not changes are to be made as a result (Shipman, 1979). The past few years have seen a number of publications which aim to assist schools in this process of systematic self-review of policy and practice (e.g. McMahon, 1984), and in the UK considerable guidance has been given by some local education authorities on such initiatives. As Robinson (1982) observes, the move towards a self-directed improvement process reflects both a disillusionment with the results of the earlier model of management innovation for school improvement, and a more positive desire to foster professional development and school-based local initiatives.

These approaches do not obviate the need for training in educational management, they complement them. They reflect a current tendency to question 'traditional' assumptions about how change in organisations and people comes about. There has for example, been lively debate in Europe, about the most appropriate approaches for bringing about school improvement and related issues of training methodologies (Buckley, 1985).

It is most likely, given the implications of alternative approaches of professional and organisational development in terms of resources and expertise, that the

main option in developing countries will remain some form of formal training, at least in the immediate future. Significantly, as will be seen below, a number of Third World countries are now examining the use of distance teaching approaches - an alternative pattern of delivery of educational management courses used in the UK through the Open University, and also in the Netherlands (Gielen, 1986).

## 2.2.2 TRAINING PROVISION IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

### The scope of national provision

A number of surveys of educational management training provision in Third World countries have been undertaken, but these tend to be rather incomplete lists of national agencies and course titles (e.g. Unesco, EPP, 1980a; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1980a). The most global picture of the scope of training provision is found in the results of the inquiry undertaken by the International Bureau of Education for the 37th session of the International Conference on Education. This asked member states to describe what special programmes they had for training educational administrators. The analysis of replies (reported by Haag, 1982), reveals a range of provision, with an emphasis on in-service training. In only very few cases, was no particular provision mentioned in the responses.

Much of the available literature pertains to activities in Asia and the Far East, where there are the greatest number of specialist providing agencies. At least 17 institutions provide in-service training in nine major countries in the area - excluding Australia and New Zealand (Unesco, Roep, 1985). Other reports of provision cover those by Unesco member states in the Asian and African regions (Unesco, Roep, 1979a; Unesco, Coforpa, 1984), in Latin America (Unesco, Oreac, 1978; by Commonwealth countries (e.g. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1982); and in Anglophone Africa, where the scope of in-service headship training was documented by the INSET Africa project (Greenland, 1982).

These surveys and reports reveal that although the scope of provision is quite extensive and growing, it is extremely fragmented (Greenland, 1982). Even when in-



service training is institutionalised in some way, there seems to be hardly any connection between pre and in-service provision (Haag, 1982). Moreover, as is the case in industrialised countries, questions concerning the most appropriate patterns and the nature of provision are largely unresolved.

#### Patterns of provision

Five principal forms of training provision can be distinguished. These are: courses organised by university departments of education; on-the-job training; training abroad; ad hoc one-off courses or conferences organised by departments of the Ministry of Education, or local authorities; and courses run by specialist Ministry-sponsored institutes for the training of educational managers (Hurst & Rodwell, 1986).

The role of universities as training providers has been widely debated. Many argue that their prime role in this area is research (e.g. Tibi, 1977; Kaul, 1981), although others maintain that if university courses were more flexible, in-service personnel could attend them (NIEPA, 1979). Courses run by university departments of education usually lead to an academic award, which means that they are likely to be too long and pre-occupied with the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills which may be different from those needed to improve educational management practice. University-sponsored courses often apply excessively stringent admissions and assessment criteria in relation to the employer's and the employee's needs in terms of job-performance. Furthermore, suitable courses may not be offered locally (Marshall, 1983).

In most Third World countries, on-the-job 'training' is the norm, although it is rarely systematic. School principals are often expected to make the transition from classroom teacher to head teacher on the basis of classroom experience alone. A fortunate few will have served a period as a deputy principal under the watchful eye of an experienced and helpful head. Much the same is true of field administrators and inspectors; it is assumed that they will 'pick it up on the job'. This assumption may have been

justified as long as systems were small, admission to the cadre was restricted to most able members of the teaching profession, and there was time in Ministries of Education to train the newcomer on the job. But, as Wandira (1972) points out in the case of Africa, the pressures of expansion means that this is rarely the case.

Where on-the-job training is carefully planned and practised in a systematic way, possibly in association with short courses, there is much in its favour. Such strategies minimise the need to take experienced administrators away from their jobs for any length of time - a major problem with longer courses and one which is particularly critical in countries where there are serious staff shortages. This is certainly a strong argument for developing countries to make greater use of alternative delivery systems, such as distance teaching, and while the majority of provision is still through a range of face-to-face contact methods, approaches involving self-instructional manuals or correspondence courses are on the increase.

In Asia, for example, distance teaching for educational management has been adopted quite extensively through the initiatives of the Unesco Regional Office. The rationale is the inadequacy of traditional methods of INSET (such as the ad hoc seminar or workshop); the size and distribution of clientele needing training in member countries; the diversity and complexity of training needs; the need to disseminate information on new concepts and developments widely, quickly and frequently; and the cost implications and shortage of experienced trainers (Unesco, Roeap, 1979b; 1983).

In addition to offering a promising means of providing continuous in-service education, distance teaching is seen as having potential as a pre-service delivery system by the Alama Iqbal Open University of Pakistan. AIQU offers correspondence courses with the possibility of accumulated credits leading to a Masters' degree in educational administration (Habib, 1978).

Attempts to move beyond rigid conceptions of training and courses, be it face-to-face or correspondence teaching, has led to some innovative approaches in the Third World.

Thus the Group Training Courses run by the Unesco Regional Office for Asian member states combine correspondence tuition with local tutorial support, three week training workshops, internship (three weeks in another Asian country), and instructional follow-up and guidance on subjects identified by participants (Unesco Roep, 1980a). Unesco's Regional office in Africa, Breda, has likewise, adopted an innovative sandwich approach with some of its courses (Unesco, Breda, 1982).

The strategy of inter-regional co-operation adopted by Unesco's regional offices appears to have considerable potential for meeting Third World training needs through the provision of locally relevant courses for a (relatively) homogeneous grouping of participants with common problems (Unesco, Roep, 1979a). Likewise, the Commonwealth Secretariat has organised a number of regional courses, seminars and workshops for school administrators, supervisors and inspectors, in different parts of the world (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981; 1981a; 1982).

A further example of provision involving international collaboration is the International Institute for Educational Planning. The IIEP set up 20 years ago by Unesco in Paris as a centre for research and training in educational planning, provides intensive training on various aspects of educational planning to an average of 50 overseas students a year. Over 1600 people from 100 countries have participated in the Institute's programmes to date (IIEP, 1984). The Economic Development Institute of the World Bank organises project related training on a sectoral basis which includes education projects, and has more recently mounted specialist educational administration courses for top level administrators at its headquarters in Washington.

By far the greatest amount of out-of-country training involves the attendance of Third World nationals at western universities and colleges, (although the instances of third country training are on the increase). Some indication of the extent of training provision for overseas students in the UK appears from a survey undertaken in 1979 (University of Bristol, 1979). This revealed that 14 higher education institutions were offering courses in education, including

specialist courses in educational administration, and that the provision covered all levels of training: initial training; advanced study at first and second levels; higher degrees; and other non-certified programmes such as ad hoc courses and attachments.

Precise student numbers in specific fields are harder to assess. At the last reported official count by the British Council, for 1981/82, there were some 87,000 overseas students in Britain attending both private and public sector educational institutions. Most students come privately at their own expense or are sponsored by their own authorities; a few come under bilateral and multilateral aid schemes. Thus the 1981/82 survey of the Technical Co-operation Training Programme (ICTP) in Britain (Williams, 1985), indicated that 17 per cent (581) of the total ICTP sponsored study fellows were in education. These figures have increased (despite some initial decline due to the introduction of full cost fees). In 1985/86, the two major British schemes, the ICTP and the Commonwealth Scholars and Fellows Programme cost £54m. and £9m. respectively, with overall student numbers reaching nearly 10,000 (British Council, 1986). A more recent announcement (Iredale, 1987), puts the 1986/87 figures at 17,000 (75 per cent of whom are ICTP study fellows) at a cost of £87m. The actual numbers in educational management/administration remain quite small.

The kinds of criticisms of university-type courses reported earlier are also levelled at training in western universities, particularly their relevance to Third World student needs. However, Lungu having argued that universities are obvious choices for training, maintains:

...it would be unwise to restrict such training to African Universities given the current problems of resources, ill-equipped libraries and shortage of personnel .... for the next decade or so this [training abroad] will be the only alternative, and overseas training programmes could be strengthened by emphasising the need for candidates to conduct research... likely to deepen their perceptions and appreciation of administrative problems in the respective educational systems. (1983, p. 94).

Overseas training solves certain problems, but also raises difficult educational issues. In addition to questions of course relevance and effectiveness (see discussions under section 2.3.1), the economic and political dimensions have been raised. As Barber observes:

The emerging view of foreign study as something other than an appropriate fix for the human capital needs of developing countries is only part a reflection of diminished confidence in the benefits of education per se. It is also a reaction against technocratic approaches to development, and is related to a new emphasis in many developing countries on their need and growing capacity to solve their own educational problems. (1984, p. 164)

A major form of training provision in Third World countries is where Ministries lay on courses for educational personnel. These usually take place within the Ministry itself on an occasional basis and are sometimes sponsored by foreign donors. There is not normally any sequential basis to this provision and it rarely attempts to cover the mass of principals and deputy principals, who are usually too numerous to be catered for. Weaknesses of this provision are numerous. There is usually little or no investigation into the real training needs of the participants and very often the courses are mainly intended to inform participants of some new initiative rather than to equip them to carry it out. The 'training' is frequently very unsystematic, there is often little follow-up in terms of supporting the participants in their subsequent work or evaluating the impact of the original input, and it may well be unrelated to what other agencies are providing.

The problem of the fragmentation of agency provision together with an increasing awareness of the shortcomings of the traditional educational management and administration course at universities, has led to the establishment or conversion of institutions for the specific training of educational managers. Thus while local universities and administrative staff colleges may be facilitators for the education of future educational managers, there is a key role for special institutions (Noor, 1980). Apart from the

rare instance of NIEPA in India, these national training institutes, normally sponsored by or part of the Ministry, are a recent phenomenon, and a number are supported through World Bank loans or IDA credits (Noor, 1985). It is evident from a recent overview by Innotech (SEAMEO's Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology, based in the Philippines), that those countries which have established institutes have adopted a variety of different structures and institutional arrangements for personnel development (Innotech, 1981).

Examples of these institutes include KESI (the Kenya Education Staff Institute), MANIEP (Management Training for Educational Personnel) in Tanzania, IDEA (the Institute for the Development of Educational Administration) in Thailand, SCEA (the Staff College for Educational Administration) in Sri Lanka), and NIEM (the National Institute of Educational Management), formerly the Malaysian Education Staff Training Institute.

The rationale behind the establishment of more formal institutions providing specific in-service training is the drive to systematise the hitherto ad hoc and piecemeal attempts at personnel development (Chew Tow Yow, 1981) and to ensure that training meets local educational needs. These institutions give substance to a proclaimed national policy of commitment to training, and the importance of continuous training of the total educational service personnel (Chew Tow Yow, 1986). Only through such a mechanism can in-service training of educational managers become a coherent, progressive and effective tool for improving the skills of personnel (Ocho, 1982; Shafi, 1982).

An alternative approach is to make use of existing facilities, or to create an institution affiliated to a higher education institution, as was the original plan in Malaysia (Chew Tow Yow, 1981). This strategy is reflected in the proposals for establishing a Commonwealth Caribbean Training Programme for Educational Administration, based at the University of the West Indies (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1982). Indeed an increasing number of University schools of education are collaborating with Ministries and providing a base for in-service courses. This can have many advantages,

but there is always a danger that where the academics and not the Ministry determine content and assessment, the provision may not adequately meet the system's needs, even if selection of participants and awarding of benefits remain the Ministry's prerogative (Bude & Greenland, 1983).

In sum then, the literature reveals that the current scope of educational management training provision in both developing and industrialised countries is wide, and much of this activity is quite recent. Numerous patterns of provision are evident, each has advantages and disadvantages. In the Asian region particularly, there has been considerable cross-fertilisation of ideas, stimulated to a large part by the Unesco Regional Office in Bangkok. Moreover, with the exception of NIEPA in India, most of the specialised training institutions have only recently been established, and the precise patterns and the nature of the provision are still evolving.

### 2.2.3 THE NATURE OF PRESENT TRAINING PROVISION

#### The curriculum

It is difficult to draw any overall picture of the nature of training provision for educational managers in curriculum terms. The basis of decisions about training provision and the design of the training programmes will ideally derive from a training needs analysis. Such an analysis will be made at an early stage to determine who should be trained, the content and process of training, its likely effects, and when it is expected to yield results (Salem, 1985). As has already been noted, there appears to be some consensus that a priority target group for training in the Third World is the middle level educational manager as the group who is most likely to be able to affect the determinants of educational practice. While the specific objectives of different courses will differ, an examination of many course outlines indicates that the broad aims are essentially similar; namely to update professional knowledge and expertise and improve management performance (Hughes, 1981).

Training provision in Third World countries tends to comprise short formal courses based on the unit of knowledge

approach in the specification of content; that is, a syllabus consisting of predominantly theoretical inputs on a range of educational management topics and tasks. Course designs revealing perceptions of what actual skills a school head, inspector, or district officer requires are less common. Those that do, frequently draw on Katz's analysis of chief executive management roles and his classification of 'technical', 'human' and 'conceptual' skills (Katz, 1955), rather than emphasising the important practical skill dimensions eg; problem analysis, judgement, organisational ability, leadership, managing conflict, and communications.

The arguments for a more practical approach have repeatedly been put forward. For example, a Commonwealth experts group stated:

Courses should be essentially practical. This did not mean that they should be arranged as a series of unrelated activities strung together like a string of sausages. Course design should be based on a sound conceptual framework and should be structured to help participants interpret their own experience through a sequence of learning situations.... (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981a, p. 111).

The practical orientation has implications not only for course content (an issue examined further in section 2.3.2), but also methodology. Indeed the literature discussing training methods is a more revealing indicator of the true nature of training provision in Third World countries, than an analysis of programme outlines.

#### Overview of Methods Used in Training

The descriptive literature on teaching methods and materials used in preparing educational managers is extensive, particularly as it pertains to the west. The methods of instruction range from traditional lectures to case studies and modern instructional technology such as computer simulations (e.g. Farquhar, 1978; Bessent, 1973; Poppenhagen, 1981; Maynes, 1980). The emerging practices are seen to hold substantial promise for increasing the effectiveness of training programmes both at the pre-service



and the in-service stages (Miklos, 1974).

Many of the methods derive from the training experience in fields other than education. Thus case study methods, in-basket exercises and simulations have their origins in war games employed in military training. These were quickly adopted and have been extensively used in management training (e.g. Starr, 1966; Craig and Bittel, 1967; Taylor & Lippitt, 1975; Watson, 1982; Nadler, 1984).

Rost (1980) reviews the development of techniques of human relations training which seek to enhance individuals' self-awareness and inter-personal skills through small group interactions. He points out that while methods such as sensitivity training and T-Groups, were a significant force in American management training in the thirties, they fell into disfavour, and were only revived in the seventies through the writings of such people as Argyris (1976), and Revans (e.g. 1971).

The use of non-traditional methods in educational management training is more recent than in business management. Early 'State of the Art' reviews include those by Culbertson (1960; 1968) on case studies; Boardman (1971) on in-basket exercises; and Taylor (1966), Cunningham (1971), Cruickshank (1971) and Musella (1973) on simulations. A number of writers noted that such methods were not always welcomed and cautioned that expectations for their successful application were frequently unrealised (Fincher, 1973).

Much of the impetus for the use of such methods in America derives from the activities of the University Council for Educational Administration in the early sixties which produced guidelines on the improvement of preparation programmes which included observations on instructional strategies and methods (Wynn, 1972). However, a more recent review of programmes in America (Silver, 1978) reveals that the predominant mode of instruction amongst the 375 institutions surveyed was classroom lectures and small group discussions. Some use of simulation techniques was reported by professors, although the students surveyed did not confirm that they had actually experienced these extensively. It is possible therefore, that although most

course descriptions indicate that a wide range of training methodologies is used, the reality may be otherwise.

A number of reviews and discussions of methods used in Europe have appeared in the literature over the years (e.g. Taylor, 1966; 1973; Keller, 1982; Hopes, 1982; Clarke, 1983; CERI, 1985). Some interesting contrasts are to be found within European countries. For example, while there has been an increasing tendency towards using case studies, simulations and participatory exercises on staff development programmes in higher education, West German training programmes still have a predominance of lecture and discussion, in contrast for instance to UK university programmes (Porter and Padley, 1982).

The potential of non-traditional approaches for educational management training has been widely debated (e.g. Buckley, 1986), and is clearly linked to changes in thinking about overall management development strategies (an issue which will be further explored in section 2.3.2). A trend towards the practical is noted by Rost, who observes:

... whilst the 'professor-behavioural-systems-theory' approach has dominated programmes for training educational administrators for more than a quarter of a century, the tide is now turning and evidence suggests that the 'administrator-existential-human-resources-practitioner' approach is making inroads into the behaviourist camp and changing the nature of preparation programmes for school administrators. (1980, p. 92).

Rost's contrasting terminology may sound obscure, but in essence it highlights the shift from cognitive learning through theoretical and knowledge-packed lectures to learning a wider range of skills through practice, experience and less traditional methods. Training to develop human and political skills is acquiring greater priority, but there is a danger as Farquhar (1978) has observed, that some programmes in paying attention to human relations skills, tend to go overboard by incorporating intensive I-Group and sensitivity training experiences. These, unless in the hands of skilled trainers (of which there are few), can do more harm than good.

Reports of methods used in the Third World also indicate a trend towards greater utilisation of non-traditional methods; but no in-depth or detailed surveys of methods have been found in the literature. A review of programmes for training school administrators and supervisors in the Far East (Unesco, Roeap, 1981a) revealed that methods used included lecture type sessions, panel discussions, viewing of films, in-basket training, group dynamics, simulated games, and role playing. There have also been a number of individual reports concerning methods used on training programmes in particular contexts (e.g. Virmani, 1980; Innotech, 1981). More general discussions of the advantages and potential of such methods in the Third World, and the presentation of guidelines on how best they can be selected and deployed have also appeared (e.g. Gurugé, 1969; Kaye 1980; Pareek, 1981; Hughes, 1981; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1983; Navaratne, 1985; Williams, 1986).

As previously highlighted, the Unesco Regional Office in Bangkok has been instrumental in enhancing the capability of national training centres in the Far East. Activities have included training methods and materials development workshops, but a recent project evaluation workshop (Unesco, Roeap, 1983) stresses the need to explore the use of a wider variety of training methods. In addition, it draws attention to the importance of improving existing materials and developing further materials.

#### Materials used in training educational administrators

Many writers have commented on the dearth of training materials in the Third World for use in educational management preparation (e.g. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981; Pareek, 1981; Kaye, 1980; Hughes, 1981; Unesco, Roeap, 1980; 1983). The materials which do exist are often the results of international activities and the last few years have seen a number of projects concerned with improving the quality of training provision through strategies which include the preparation of training materials, and the dissemination of information and guides on methods and materials. Details of some of these initiatives are summarised in Annex 1.

A major role in stimulating materials development has

been played by the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration. The CCEA was responsible for the recently published Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators, and The Commonwealth Casebook for Administrators in Post-Secondary Education (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1983; 1985). These provide collections of case studies gathered from Commonwealth countries together with discussions about the various types of cases and how best they can be used. The Commonwealth Secretariat have also published Leadership in the Management of Education: A Handbook for Educational Supervisors. This is aimed at both practitioners and trainers, and in addition to discussing many valuable ideas on leadership and management which might provide the basis for in-service courses, it gives practical guidelines for organising and running courses (Hughes, 1981).

Other useful collections of materials include the Penang Case Book (Harris, 1975), School Administration: Reality Case Studies in School Administration (Unesco, HETEP, 1977), and those included in publications by Ozigi (1977), Newton (1981), Pareek (1981) and Clarke (1983).

An elaborate materials development project which is currently coming to completion is 'Training and Upgrading Methods and Techniques in the Field of Planning, Administration and Facilities' initiated by Unesco's Division of Educational Policy and Planning in 1977. The first phase of the project included the collection and analysis of existing materials and the mounting of a series of meetings during which the target population of middle level practitioners was identified and the content and methodology for materials production decided. The modular training materials developed by commissioned writers, including Third World nationals, have been widely distributed and an evaluation programme is now under way (Kaye, 1980; Unesco, EPP, 1980; 1985; 1986).

Unesco's Regional Office in Bangkok had earlier produced basic modular materials in educational planning and management as part of the UNDP/Unesco Inter-country project 'Regional Technical Co-operation for Training Educational Personnel in Planning and Management Using Distance Teaching and Other Techniques'. The project has developed distance

teaching materials on a co-operative basis and the major output - seven books making up the Basic Training Programme in Educational Planning and Management - have formed the basis of a number of regional training programmes. The materials were tested and revised in 1982, with nearly 750 copies being printed and distributed. Additional modules have also been produced, and six countries have adapted the modules to suit their requirements; in three countries - Nepal, Indonesia, and Thailand - this has involved translation. A correspondence version has been produced by Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan for use on MA distance teaching courses (Unesco, Roep, 1979; 1980; 1983).

In the African region a set of guidelines for courses for the in-service training of middle and lower level educational planning and administration personnel have been developed through an Inter-Country Workshop held as part of the activities of a Unesco/Ford Foundation Programme being executed by the Network of Educational Innovation for Development in Africa (Unesco, Neida, 1984). The eight basic modules which have been issued are designed for local adaptation, and in particular, the addition of national data and case studies.

Other materials development projects are 'Planning Education for Development', based at Harvard University and funded by USAID. Outcomes of this included four volumes of self-instructional units incorporating exercises, cases and other learning aids, along with standard text material (Davis, 1980). The Economic Development Institute of the World Bank (EDI) is also a useful source of materials, including readings, case studies and exercises on project planning, implementation and management (EDI on-going). This material is not widely disseminated (being produced for use on internal courses), and most of it is not specifically geared towards educational management, but is still worthy of note (e.g. EDI, 1982; 1983). There is also the package of modular materials, Managing Educational Change produced by the writer, which was a major outcome of the research project presented as the thesis case study (Rodwell, 1986).

The extent to which these materials development initiatives are having an impact on the quality of Third

World training provision will be examined later. Significantly, many of these projects present materials as prototypes rather than attempting to disseminate documents to serve as recipes or standard models to be applied indifferently in various contexts. This reflects a widely held view that externally produced materials are rarely completely appropriate to a country's specific training needs, and can only be applied to different situations after local experimentation and adaptation (Unesco, EPP, 1980).

Adaptation of materials originating in the west and aimed at the western educational manager, is quite widespread in Third World countries. Most frequently this involves the use of extracts from standard academic texts, but in Sri Lanka for example, a project is underway involving the translation of selected Open University educational management texts (an arrangement which involves payment of a copyright fee). Given the tendency of Third World trainers to look to western sources for materials it is of interest to examine developments in materials production in the west.

It is noteworthy that in North America, much of the early stimulus to the production of case study materials and simulations stems from the activities of the University Council for Educational Administration. Over the years the UCEA have supported the development and production of a range of sophisticated simulation packages for use in preparing educational administrators. One feature of these initiatives was that the UCEA would not sell the simulations unless the trainer-user attended an UCEA course or participated on a course organised by an approved professor (Bligh, 1971). This illustrates a significant point surrounding the materials development and dissemination process, namely that successful implementation (of complex materials involving new skills) may require the provision of user support.

A number of more recent research and materials development projects are reported from North America and from Australia. Examples include: the National Consortium for Performance-based Preparation of Principals, a five year Research and Development Project co-ordinated by

NASSP (The National Association of Secondary School Principals), and a variety of projects funded by the US Office of Education such as the production of materials for career education administrators (Wisconsin, 1978). In Canada, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education has produced a range of in-basket simulation exercises (Musella, 1973), and the University of Alberta has recently completed the comprehensive 'Project ASK' (Administrative Skills and Knowledge). The latter utilised the competency based approach to training, whereby a large number of school principal tasks were identified and analysed, and educational programmes and modular materials devised to cover priority tasks (Project ASK, 1981). Universities in Australia, including Macquarie (CAI on-going) and Queensland have produced minicourses and in-basket simulations (Walker 1969a), which have been widely distributed over the years.

In general however, the literature would seem to indicate that such Australian and North American materials development projects, which represent quite complex and costly activities, are less prevalent now than they were two decades ago (Walker, 1986); the same is probably true in Europe. There is certainly less documented evidence of external agencies collaborating in and/or providing funding for the development and production of materials for training educational managers in Europe. One of the most interesting projects in Britain dates back to the late sixties, when a course was developed at Bristol University in association with Harlech Television on the implications of change for educational leadership. Alongside eight half hour broadcast programmes, the materials for Heading for Change included a resource book of simulated problems which did much to popularise simulated learning methods in the country (Taylor, 1969a). Another, and more recent example is the package of materials Managing Staff in Schools deriving from a DES funded research project (Lyons and Stenning, 1985). An example from West Germany, is the project supported by the Volkswagen Foundation which aims to develop and field test curricula materials for training school principals and supervisors (Bessoth, 1978).

On the whole however, materials development

initiatives in Europe tend to be institutional or individual. A major development in this area in the UK has been the Open University courses on Management in Education, with their associated course books and case study materials. Recently, a number of educational management publications containing training exercises have begun to appear in bookshops in the UK, reflecting the increased attention being given to school management training, and training of the trainers (e.g. Lambert, 1986).

One difficulty which potential users of such materials have is actually identifying what is available, and an important function of the National Development Centre for School Management Training in Britain is the building up of a resource bank to facilitate the exchange of materials and information on matters relating to school management training (NDC, 1985; on-going). The NDC database also includes information on the extensive range of more general management training materials produced by both commercial concerns (companies and production houses such as Video Arts) and by individual institutions.

The alternative to using externally produced, national or international packages is for trainers to develop their own materials. However, the development of sophisticated simulations or multi-media packages can be very expensive and requires considerable expertise and time. Even preparation of case studies is not an easy task and can be very time consuming. A valuable source of case study and in-basket materials is to involve individual students in writing and editing their own materials. It is also a powerful device for improving understanding of the use of case studies and is a strategy which has been advocated for the Third World (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1983).

Undoubtedly as trainer expertise grows in the Third World, the next few years will see an increasing range of locally produced materials, both simple case studies and more sophisticated packages. Some national training agencies are already rapidly expanding their materials development activities. One example is NIEPA in India which has developed and used human relations training materials for school administrators. Virmani (1980) describes a training



package consisting of a brief background sheet, a videotape showing an incident, and a set of questions for case-study analysis. The Unesco Asian network are also known to have explored the possibility of strengthening the written word of correspondence lesson units with audio visual support through cassette tapes and videotapes, and Ahmad (undated), reports on development of resources in Malaysia which includes the production of a training film on educational leadership.

These are just some examples of reported materials development activities and there are probably a large number of case studies, exercises and simulations produced by individuals and institutions which never get reported or more widely distributed. Most trainers develop materials of some sort or another to meet their needs within their own specific contexts. The use of a case study or a simulation can be a very personal matter, and even within an institution, the preparation or acquisition of materials by one trainer, does not necessarily mean that others in the department will either know about it or use it. The establishment of resource banks could be a useful strategy for helping to improve the quality of training provision in many institutions.

The literature reviewed in this section provides some indication of the scope and nature of training provision for educational managers in both developing and industrialised countries. Much of this activity is quite recent and the next section will examine some of the questions which are being raised concerning its impact and quality.

## 2.3 THE QUALITY & IMPACT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING

### 2.3.1 THE IMPACT OF TRAINING

#### Some general issues surrounding training evaluation

There is a widely held belief that formal training of educational managers, and indeed of other personnel, has had limited impact. There is however a lack of any substantial evidence concerning its 'effectiveness' or otherwise and this is largely due to the many complexities inherent in the conduct of training evaluation in general. The literature highlights many unresolved issues and these usually stem from fundamental questions about the purpose of evaluation (who needs the information and why), and the approaches (how evaluation should be undertaken).

A number of evaluation and research models have been proposed over the years, including earlier Tylerian Objectives-oriented models, Stufflebeam's Context-Input-Process-Product model (1971), Scriven's Goal-Free model (1967; 1972), and Stake's Countenance model (1967) and Responsive evaluation model (1976). The various models reflect particular ideological viewpoints about the nature of society, change and human behaviour, and their inter-relationships.

Of the various models, the CIPP model has featured in a number of writings concerning the evaluation of the contribution of educational management training to overall goals of the system and school improvement (Bolam, 1983). It highlights the importance of considering evaluation as an on-going process geared to the improvement of training, and emphasises the context of training. Thus as Heller (1982) has stressed, it is important not to separate an examination of training from a review of the authorities' wider in-service programmes and the other circumstances which may have accelerated or inhibited growth of management skills.

Evaluating the impact of training and particularly in-service courses in terms of improved effectiveness is difficult for several reasons. Such programmes by their nature aim at improving human skills and providing benefits of a mainly qualitative nature (OECD, 1972). Furthermore, as Glatter (1983) suggests, in talking about the effectiveness or otherwise of training, concepts and perceptions of

effectiveness vary from one country to another, within countries, from time to time and within groups. Bolam summarises the difficulties surrounding evaluation thus:-

One difficulty relates to logistics and resources; it is expensive and time-consuming to interview participants after the course; even a follow-up questionnaire of a self-report kind can only be administered and analysed by a researcher or an institution with a continuing staff commitment to the programme (since course-teams normally disband at the conclusion of the course). It is also technically and professionally difficult to obtain reliable, independent information about changes in performance... The most fundamental difficulty of all, however, is that there is no agreement about the precise behavioural features displayed by heads ... who do successfully promote effective classroom teaching and learning.(1986, p. 266).

A further complex question concerns costs and benefits. Training is frequently criticised for not only being unproven, but also costly. There has been some discussion of cost-benefit analysis of training projects in other fields, and a major problem highlighted is the difficulty of monetising the benefits of training and assessing future long-term earnings (Freeman, 1979). Cost-effectiveness studies of training are more realistic and have been discussed (e.g. Unesco, 1979/80; Perraton, 1982). One example derives from the INSET Africa project, where costs and effectiveness were two of the crucial issues which emerged out of the findings (Waddimba, 1983).

There is little documented evidence of attempts to undertake cost-effectiveness evaluation of courses for educational administrators. An American study (King, 1981) found many difficulties in using the approach, particularly in identifying educational goals, in comparing and assessing costs and contextual constraints, and in measuring the attainment of goals. He concludes that the use and applicability of cost-effective analysis in the evaluation of social action programmes such as educational administrator training is questionable.

There can be no real evidence about the long term impact of a programme without both baseline and follow-up studies to examine the extent to which training is put into practice and integrated into participants' normal patterns of job behaviour at work, or to assess the ultimate values or benefits. Few such studies are reported, and most evaluations are based on self-report and rather unreliable data about how satisfied participants were with a training experience, how much they believed they were affected by the course, or their perceptions of the teaching methods and content (Hopes, 1982).

#### Evaluation of present training provision in the west - the evidence

Increasing attention is being given in Europe to the need to resolve evaluation problems and undertake more rigorous evaluation of educational management training (Buckley, 1985). A key function of the NDC in the UK, is the provision of support and guidelines on evaluation, and this is reflected in their analysis of evaluation studies of short twenty day management training programmes (Ballinger, 1985). Few detailed studies have been reported and as Glatter (1983) observes, those which have are in a USA context where the forms of training are very different from those currently emerging in the European settings.

One exception to this is the comprehensive evaluation programme associated with the Swedish Leaders Project. This includes a longitudinal study which involves monitoring a number of schools at the start and again after two and five years of the project (SLP, 1977-1982; on-going). The overall picture of the programme as revealed by the research studies to date is that it is positively received by participants but that there is no easy connection between school development and personal/professional role development (Ekholm, 1983).

The case for formal preparation in educational administration in America is also weak. A study undertaken twenty years ago, but still often cited, is that undertaken by Gross and Herriott (1965). This showed that principals who had the greatest amount of formal education did not have

the highest scores on an 'Executive Professional Leadership Scale'. More recently, Bridges (1976), has reviewed available US research, and concludes that most studies show no relationship between formal training and subsequent success in administration; studies are reported that reveal no positive correlation between number of years in college and in graduate school with judged effectiveness as an administrator. Some even show a negative relationship between the instructional flexibility of elementary schools and the extent of the principals' preparation.

Hills commenting on the general "state of disarray" of North American pre-service university programmes, suggests:

Not only are we uncertain about the relative efficacy of alternative ways of handling certain aspects of administrator preparation ... we are not certain that preparation makes any difference at all... moreover, we are not even sure what we might usefully mean by the term success. (1980, p. 224).

Concern at the lack of evaluation evidence and a general feeling that present pre-service provision is inadequate is also expressed in Pitner's most recent state of the art paper on training school administrators in the US (Pitner, 1982). In-service training has also come under scrutiny, and Hentschel (1979), reviewing evaluations of in-service workshops for educational administrators in America concludes that very little is known; his review yielded few evaluations of impact, most consisting of self-report data provided by participants.

One of the few comprehensive evaluation studies of educational administrator training reported is that undertaken at the Australian Institute of Educational Administration. A wide variety of affective, organisational and behavioural measures were employed on participants three months before, during and three months after attendance at courses. The report concludes that the study:

... provides strong and convincing evidence that inservice professional development programs for educational administrators can have measurable impact both on the participants in the programs and on the schools administered. (Silver & Moyle, 1983, p. 15).

### The impact of training in and for Third World educational managers

The problems surrounding the evaluation of training programmes are widely recognised by Third World trainers. Pareek (1981) describes a range of evaluation techniques and discusses how and when they can be used, with examples from the evaluation of a training programme for school principals in Malaysia. An evaluation undertaken by NIEPA in India has been described by Bhagia (1981b). This was based on trainees' reactions; an assessment of acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes; programme review; and behavioural changes of trainees in terms of on-job results. The latter involved a follow-up of students' proposed action plans and an impact study - the difficulties of the method are indicated in the 23 per cent response rate achieved. A somewhat better response rate from participants' supervisors was achieved in a follow-up evaluation of Innotech programmes, with results indicating positive changes in course participants' behaviour six months after completion of training (Intarakumnerd, 1981).

A study reported by Greenland (1983) describes the evaluation of headship training in Burundi. This follow-up study used interviews, observations and full-staff meetings. The training team, finding that the impact of the course was very weak, modified the course and then decided to provide other forms of support to complement training. The same writer also draws attention to the need to measure the costs and effectiveness of training courses in Burundi to enable policy-makers to make decisions about the allocation of scarce resources on a more scientific basis than is possible at present.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of overseas training for Third World educational managers is crucially important in view of the increasingly prevalent mood of disenchantment and outright questioning of the relevance of overseas training in general. Examples have been cited of overseas courses which train students in sophisticated management techniques which may have little chance of being introduced in developing countries (e.g. Guruge, 1969), or which present students with content which is too theoretical

and academic and considered unsuited to local conditions (e.g. Unesco, 1980; Shafi, 1982).

Although many institutions probably undertake formative evaluation of their courses for Third World educational managers, these are rarely published. In any event, it is probable that the major benefit of overseas training, and one which has significant long term effects is the acquisition of improved confidence, as Hurst (1981) found in his evaluation of a course for Yemeni heads. The more general studies which have been found indicate that one of the major issues is the transfer of learning (e.g. Scarboro, 1980). This literature, such as it is, tends to focus on the broader issues surrounding the overseas training strategy, and these will be examined further in section 2.4.4.

It is probably too early to say whether the new emphasis being given to training educational managers worldwide is having any significant impact. Already there are signs that some of the newly established Third World training institutions are encountering difficulties. For example a report on MANTEP in Tanzania highlighted numerous problems, the most serious being the shortage of staff and finance, the low status of staff and the decreasing credibility of courses (MANTEP, 1980). An assessment by Noor (1985) of World Bank supported institutes was that they had generally achieved less than had been expected. There are many reasons for this, but it is evident that more attention needs to be given to some of critical issues concerning the quality of training provision (Hurst & Rodwell, 1986).

### 2.3.2 THE QUALITY OF TRAINING - CRITICAL ISSUES

#### Training needs and objectives

In considering what makes a good training programme in educational planning, Prakasha (1975) suggests nine main preconditions that must be met. These include that: content must be relevant to needs identified by proper research and forward looking to future needs; the programme must itself reflect the ideas and changes it seeks to promote, for example through use of relevant instructional materials; theories and practices presented must be based on

indigenous research; provision must be based within a faculty whose competences reflect the many sided interdisciplinary character of educational planning and whose staff have practical experience; it should use methods that the trainees can master; it should provide opportunities for individual assignment, group work and well planned practical work; and that the programme must have a mechanism for evaluation.

Prakash's conditions reflect the systems or educational technology approach to curriculum development. A more concise framework is presented by Rowntree (1982) in terms of four phases of problem solving: firstly the purposes - analysing aims, describing students, suggesting objectives, considering assessment and evaluation; secondly, the design of learning - analysing objectives, considering subject matter and content, identifying learning sequences, deciding teaching strategy, selecting media and materials, preparing experiences; thirdly, evaluation; and lastly, improvement.

Educational management training courses designed on the systems thinking approach have been widely used in both industrialised countries (e.g. in Canada, Project ASK, 1981), and Third World countries (e.g. the Management Development Programme for School Administrators in India, Upsani, 1980). Two recent publications written for Third World trainers The Handbook for Trainers in Educational Management (Pareek, 1981) and Leadership in the Management of Education (Hughes, 1981) draw on the framework to help highlight the close inter-relationship which needs to exist between course objectives, content and methods. The significance of this can be brought into focus by examining some of the key issues surrounding training needs analysis, course objectives and course content.

The sources and types of information on which decisions concerning training provision are based are numerous and questions about how, by whom and when such research should be undertaken and what its main focus should be are frequently raised in the literature (e.g. Glatter, 1972, 1983; Tibi, 1977; Mulford, 1982; Hegarty, 1983; ATEE, 1982). A range of approaches have been described for



identifying training needs. Including: simple assessment through job descriptions; seminars and brainstorming sessions set up to analyse specific needs; observational and questionnaire analysis to draw up activity and task profiles of different categories of administrator; comprehensive and statistically rigorous research into required competencies and skills - at its extreme sophistication in the competency-based approach to skill training.

The basis of much of the work in this area is the identification and diagnosis of competency needs. Competency based education or training (CBT) is an influential movement in public education in North America. It has been used for developing training models in a number of fields, but only recently has it been applied to educational management training. The approach rigorously and systematically identifies what competencies are required of effective leaders (or other groups), by developing and testing competency indicators which describe a leader's performance in terms of a large number of competency statements, and the level of competency required. On the basis of this analysis, project teams can develop training programmes (group or individualised) and materials for identified competencies, together with assessment tools. An example of this is Canadian Project ASK (1981), and the Quadrant Assessment Method used by this project has been adapted and used in a number of Third World countries by Hurst & Rodwell (1986a).

The case for CBT has been presented by many American writers (e.g. Larson, 1976; Geering, 1980), and discussed in relation to developing Third World educational management training programmes (Weiler, 1977), but in general the approach tends to be treated with some suspicion outside the American continent (e.g. Hughes, 1981), and Hopes (1982) maintains that its abiding weaknesses are that competency statements are specific to only one situation, they are retrospective or at least static, and CBT concentrates on skills at the expense of the other training needs.

The traditional approach to the definition of training needs which spends a lot of time on job descriptions and time consuming appraisals has been widely criticised. On the one hand it assumes that job descriptions actually exist,

and there is ample evidence from both Third World countries and the west that this is not always the case. In the UK, for example, Morgan et al. (1984) found that only one local educational authority out of 81 surveyed had a standard job description for the post of headteacher. It is also a mechanistic approach which concentrates on role and task (or competency) analysis, and makes little reference to relationships and actual processes within the school setting (Glatter, 1983). Such analysis takes a static view of training needs and suggests what an administrator does rather than what he/she should do. Any training needs analysis must also take into consideration tomorrow's needs, and look at the key factors and likely changes in the educational environment, assessing what impact these factors are making or will make on managerial tasks, and what personal qualities and capacities, additional knowledge and skills may be called for to deal with new and changing conditions (Tibi, 1977).

There are also problems with approaches that ask the target group and their peers about training needs. The perceptions of an individual's role and functions may well differ, and the question arises as to whose perceptions of the job and training needs is most critical (Hopes, 1982). What administrators suggest are their training needs, and what the Ministry thinks, may be very different (Pareek, 1981). Likewise, teachers' perceptions of school leaders' needs may be contrary to the perceptions of the leaders themselves (Kogoè, 1986). The trainer and the trained may also perceive the situation and the needs in very different ways (Greenland, 1982).

The main problem of establishing training needs lies with the employing organisation itself and its own ability to analyse training requirements (Garvey, 1987). At one level this will involve an identification of those organisational problems which can be tackled through personnel training. At another it requires determination of training objectives. Such analyses are rarely very thoroughly carried out. This, suggests Garvey, is largely due to the lack of tradition of structured staff development and associated needs appraisal, and also because the impetus

for a lot of training (for overseas courses) comes from outside the organisation (e.g. aid scholarships).

The most common approach to training needs analysis in Third World countries (where it takes place) is on asking the target group and fellow administrators, and on observing and analysing job performance. Such approaches are discussed in The Handbook for Educational Management produced under the auspices of Unesco, Roep (Pareek, 1981), with examples of analyses undertaken in Papua New Guinea and Nepal. Other examples of analyses of training needs undertaken in Third World countries, include those undertaken: in Brazil (Livingstone, 1975); in Asia (Unesco, Roep, 1980); in the Caribbean (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1982); in Nigeria (Ohikhena, 1979); in Togo (Kogoè, 1986); and in Sri Lanka (Fernando, 1983).

Whilst training needs analysis can be used to identify areas and topics for training it does not solve the problem of what should be the precise content of courses, the learning objectives and the appropriate methodology in order to achieve transfer of training (Hopes, 1982). Having undertaken a needs analysis there can be no pre-determined strategy for any group of trainees based only on a conception of required competencies, skills and insights:

To be taken into account are the previous experience and achievements of trainees, their individual aspirations, and the exigencies and unique circumstance of their various situations (Commonwealth Secretariat, Antigua Report, 1982, p. 7).

If one explores the job descriptions and activity and skill profiles of different levels of administrators in different systems, it becomes very evident that not only do posts have no common description, objectives, roles and functions (Miklos, 1974), but also that staff have no common basis of training qualifications, knowledge and experience. They also have different aspirations, and even within an apparently homogeneous group in terms of background and experience there will be, as a Nigerian writer reports, different aptitudes and scholastic potentialities (Ohikhena, 1979). Thus without rigorous analysis of the highly differentiated and diverse categories of administrative

personnel (even within a country), the great diversity of training needs will not be clearly identified. Since different levels of educational administrators have different training needs (Guruge, 1969), there are clearly serious implications for the training strategies adopted, both with respect to content and methodology (Mathur, 1973). The heterogeneity of groups, often from different countries, is a continuing problem on many regional or overseas courses (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981a); but one which, within limits, contributes its own strengths.

It may be that extremely heterogeneous groups should be avoided, and the desirability of integrated or separate training is a question which has been raised in the European context. Ballinger's evaluation of headship training courses (Ballinger, 1985) notes the benefits perceived by a mixed group (heads and advisers), particularly in gaining insights into each other's roles and tasks. In his discussion of the issue, Hopes (1982) suggests that in defining the composition of target groups, the key question to be asked is whether training should be related to managerial processes or to position (i.e. primary or secondary head); there may be advantages and disadvantages in both approaches (integration or separation) depending on the precise course aims and objectives.

The problem is that there is no general consensus as to the precise nature of educational management, either within or between cultures, and at different levels of the system. What is needed is more in depth research into management practice and managerial effectiveness to help inform the complex judgements to be made about training needs and objectives. This lack of an adequate research base to underpin training is widely felt (e.g. Hird, 1982; Leithwood, 1983; Bolam, 1986).

In a comprehensive review of a number of studies which have sought to identify the skills associated with the practice of effective principalship, Mulford (1980), critically examines the various approaches to identifying the content of training, and concludes that more attention should be paid to studies which focus on effective school administration. Such studies help with answers to the

questions on the manner in which principals make a difference to teachers and students in their schools. Analysis of existing research studies suggests that effective school leadership is considerably influenced by the principal (Sweeney, 1982; Reynolds, 1982; Schmuck, 1982; Leithwood, 1983); that the quality of school administration can strongly affect student achievement (State of New York, 1974); that there is a positive relationship between principals' leadership and student 'growth' (Cawelti, 1981); and that leadership role and school climate do effect pupil performance (Silver, 1983; Paisey, 1983).

A summary of recent work in the UK (Hughes, 1983), reveals that secondary heads have received most attention and that role theory has been the main theoretical orientation. The tasks of heads have also been studied (e.g. Lyons, 1976; Weindling and Earley, 1983; Morgan, 1984). However, as Bolam (1986) notes, the relationships between tasks, and the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to carry them out has rarely been investigated. Furthermore, while research on the principals' role has been under way for many years, research in the context of bringing about planned change is suggests Leithwood (1983), in its infancy both conceptually and methodologically. Having reviewed the research he concludes that critical components of effective principal behaviour are still to be discovered; much of what is offered regarding effectiveness is of undetermined validity, and what is needed is to begin to view research on effectiveness and training programs as parallel and complementary activities.

Research into educational management in many Third World countries is still at an early stage (Marshall & Newton, 1983), and its lack is keenly felt by trainers (e.g. Lungu, 1983). The situation is likely to improve rapidly as university faculties of educational administration expand and specialist training institutes embark on research activities. For example, in India NIEPA is placing a strong emphasis on research in support of training (Singhal, 1983), and in Liberia, Tubman Teachers' College is undertaking a study of school administration, funded by the Canadian International Development Research Centre (IDRC, 1984).

## The question of course content - national and international perspectives

Much has been written about the content of educational management training programmes in the west, particular concerning the status of theory (e.g. Culbertson, 1969; Farquhar, 1972; Glatte, 1972; Bone, 1982), and the suitability and relevance of courses for practitioners' needs (e.g. Bone, 1975; Miklos & Nixon, 1979; Hills, 1980; Bailey, 1986).

An early approach to the problem of course content was that of Griffiths (1969) who attempted to develop taxonomies of organisational behaviour in educational administration. He hoped to precisely define the areas of knowledge falling within this boundary, to produce guides for selecting and abstracting content on educational administration, and to furnish guides for use in developing instructional materials. He emerged with four separate taxonomies based on four prevailing theories. There were infrequent overlaps and he concluded that the search for one encompassing theory should be abandoned and rather, that there was a need for a number of theories concerning the various aspects of educational administration, each theory contributing to the totality. The evolution of the multidisciplinary approach is noted by Hughes in his detailed review of theoretical discussions over the past thirty years. While noting that theory and practice are in tension he argues that this:

... can be dynamic and creative, leading to deeper understanding and to a consequent improvement in the practice of educational management. (1985, p. 33).

A major re-assessment of educational administration theory was largely brought about by the contributions of Greenfield (a debate which significantly started with his paper presented at the 1974 IIP - Greenfield, 1975). But although he has argued that the efforts to provide theoretical bases for the practice and the preparation of practitioners are doomed to failure (Greenfield, 1977), others are less pessimistic, or advocate eclecticism. Thus Culbertson (1980) maintains that further efforts in evaluating programmes and carrying our research into the

nature of management, is a crucial task in building what he has called the 'theory of practice'.

The dilemma is that theoretical assumptions have to be made in deciding the conceptual content of programmes. However, the alternative approach, whereby training programmes focus on specific techniques which the manager can immediately apply, requires decisions as to which are the best and most appropriate of the current techniques and practices, and what skills are actually required to perform tasks. These two alternatives reflect the dichotomy which has been variously described as 'thought and action', 'theory and practice', or 'ivory tower and real world'. It is a continuing controversial issue (Bolman, 1976).

Bridging the gap between theory and practice is a major challenge which trainers face, and can best be done, suggests Gray:

By helping the learner to manage to use the past (his own and others) as a jumping off point for his own decision making; and not, as in most academic programmes in education, to see management theory solely as a basis for his actions. (1982, p. 8).

Many trainers in Europe, encountering a resistance to theoretical concepts, have drawn on experiences and models from other fields where management training is practised, such as industry and commerce. However Al-Khalifa (1986) advocates some caution, stressing that while industrial models may have some usefulness in developing an understanding of school management, schools require context-related management models and training practices. Trainers also draw from countries where training in educational management has a longer tradition. But as Hopes warns, these have evolved and exist in a different culture and historical context from the indigenous education system, and "trainees often have difficulty in relating the 'foreign' theory to their own practical situation". (1982, p. 17).

Hopes is discussing the problems of transfer across the Atlantic, and when one considers transfers of theories to developing country contexts, the issue becomes even more critical. These theories won't serve as universal statements of truth, suggests Gurugé, (1969) although they may help

throw light on, or assist in developing indigenous theory. Moreover as Hughes observes:

Within international literature on educational management written in English, there is increasing recognition of the value of a multidisciplinary ... perspective which draws on varied intellectual traditions ... such approaches are also currently being tried out and found relevant to the improvement of practice in developing countries. (1985, p. 473).

The question of the status of theory in courses for Third World managers is one which needs to be addressed by training providers both in-country and overseas. One Caribbean trainer having critically examined the literature, concludes that such theories and models should not be imported (Newton, 1985). Commenting on the education of Third World school administrators in North American graduate programmes in educational administration, Marshall makes the following comment:

To uncritically expose Canadian students to the dominant (i.e. behavioural science paradigm) theoretical and conceptual models in educational administration is intellectually unacceptable. To do the same to students from developing areas verges on intellectual fraud. (1982, p. 21).

Marshall argues that the conceptual and analytical skills required for effective school administration in developing areas will evolve from an appreciation and analysis of at least four general knowledge areas: theories of development; organisational development; public administration in developing areas; and organisational functioning across cultures. His conclusions from an examination of studies in these fields is that planners of training programs for school administrators in Third World countries should utilize with extreme caution the content of similar programs in developed areas.

Moreover, whilst skills and knowledge in the technical and operational maintenance area are most easily transferred, skills and knowledge in the human relations area should be considered by and large untransferable. In respect to the cross-cultural relevance of leadership,



motivation and other concerns in the human relations area, Marshall concludes that cultural influences may have significant impact upon organisational and management practices but it is not precisely clear as to what this impact might be.

There is a further discussion of the issues of cross-cultural transfer in Section 2.4.1, and it is evident that when it comes to decisions on course content, more research into the nature of educational management and cross-cultural differences is needed. The role of Third World universities in stimulating scholarship through indigenous research was noted earlier (e.g. Kaul, 1981; Tibi, 1977). Sensitising university authorities to research needs in this area is one objective proposed by the UNDP/Unesco Coforpa project 'Developing National Capabilities for Training and Research in Educational Planning and Administration' (Unesco, Coforpa, 1984). Clearly the academic study of educational administration needs to be taken seriously (Majasan, 1974), and as Lungu comments:

Most theorising in administrative sciences has been based on the experiences of European and North American organisations, almost nothing has been done in African setting, let alone African educational organisations. (1983, p. 90).

#### The Training-learning process

Educational management trainers are ultimately concerned with how well the learning experiences they provide leads to the acquisition by learners of the required knowledge, skills, attitudes and techniques, and the transfer of this learning to improved performance on the job. This suggests that it is not possible to determine content without at the same time specifying strategies and methods; i.e. considering the training process as a whole. Many writers have commented on the significance of the contents-method relationship (e.g. Glatter, 1972; Tibi, 1977; Hughes, 1981), and drawn attention to the importance of systematic training design based on a full appreciation of the nature of the training-learning process (e.g. Romiszowski, 1984).

The process of learning has been studied over many years and has resulted in the presentation of a variety of learning theories, models of learning, principles about learning and the conditions under which learning occurs. Numerous summaries of theoretical positions and their implications for learning have appeared in the literature (e.g. Burgoyne, 1975; Romiszowski, 1984). Two popular but opposing approaches to instruction can be identified: the direct expositive approach as favoured by Ausubel (1968), and the discovery approach as favoured by Bruner (1966), Piaget (e.g. 1957, 1965) and other developmental psychologists.

One writer who has been very influential amongst course designers and trainers is Gagné (1965), and a number of educational management training programmes have explicitly drawn on his work. Project ASK (1981) for example, uses the model as a framework to guide the development of competency based training materials and as a justification of the individualised sequential approaches adopted. Gagné identifies eight types of learning each of which results in different kinds of behaviour and each of which needs different conditions to produce it. He further refined his learning theory to provide a basis for an exposition and discussion of teaching methods (Gagné, 1976). Gagné would argue that both expositive and discovery approaches can be effective methods depending on the precise circumstances; no single theory of learning can offer explanations and predictions in all the diversity of situations in which people learn.

There is a considerable body of work on the relationship between learning strategy and learning outcomes (e.g. Pask, 1976; Laurillard, 1979) which draws attention to the importance of helping learners to develop their learning strategy skills. The learner is seen as being an active part of the process, facilitated by the tutor (Rogers, 1969; Revans, 1971), rather than the passive (childlike) recipient. Learners moreover, have different learning styles (Kolb, 1974).

Discussions of training in many sectors have drawn attention to the need to consider carefully theories of

adult development and the principles and conditions under which adults learn. A useful examination of these theories in relation to teacher education is provided by Corrigan (1979), and in relation to management education by Hawrylyshyn (1975), Burgoyne (1978), and Mumford (1982). An increasing number of discussions of educational management training draw on the same conceptual background, e.g. Cruickshank (1976), Miles (1974), Pfeiffer (1973), Gonzales-Tirados (1983), Bailey (1986), but, as Buckley (1985) observes, we still know very little about the behaviour or motivation of heads or experienced administrators in a learning situation.

The empirical knowledge on the learning and developmental psychology of the mid-career professional is very limited. However, the move to self-development and adoption of less directive methods in educational management training is justified on psychological grounds (Glatter, 1983); learning will be more effective and motivation greater if the content and methods are selected and controlled largely by the learner in accordance with his/her own perception of needs and interests because the individual then 'owns' the learning to a greater extent than if specified from 'above'.

Some of those concerned with training overseas students have also considered the implications of learning theories for the design and implementation of training programmes (e.g. EDI, 1982). However, what is still undocumented is the extent to which some of the assumptions of learning theory are universally applicable; for example the cross cultural validity of North American based models of cognitive development (Marshall, 1986). (See also 2.4.2.)

#### Training methodology

A range of methods are used in training educational managers and their advantages and disadvantages are widely debated. Arguments in support of the more extensive use of innovative methods such as laboratory training, case method, simulations, games and independent study are presented by Wynn in an early discussion of training methodology (Wynn, 1972). These include: the sterility of traditional

classroom bound instruction; the impact of such methods in other fields such as in business studies and management training; the widespread impact of management science on educational administration with schools becoming less interested in theory and knowledge and more interested in the development of attitudes and skills; and the importance of reality orientation, i.e. relating instruction more directly to the reality of administration.

A major rationale for the use of non-traditional methods is based on views about the way adults learn, as noted above. Many writers have drawn on the ideas of Knowles (1974; 1984) who has distinguished between andragogical and pedagogical methods. The former is described as a process model, where the teacher acts as a facilitator, consultant, change agent, who prepares a set of procedures involving the learners in for example, diagnosing their needs for learning and formulating progress objectives; the facilitator creates a mechanism for mutual learning and designs a pattern of learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials. In the pedagogical method, the teacher decides the knowledge or skills to be transmitted, organises content into a logical order and 'teaches' using lectures, readings, discussions, and other expositive methods.

A further argument in favour of less conventional methods, is the importance of experience. Experiential training is based on the direct experiences of the participants as opposed to the vicarious experience garnered through didactic approaches (Kolb, 1984). The argument that training needs to be experiential and directly related to the reality of administration, suggests two alternative approaches. While one approach is to take the classroom 'into-reality' through attachments and problem-solving approaches, non-traditional training methods are designed to help bring reality into the classroom (Wynn, 1972). Case studies, role plays, simulations and other participatory exercises permit the learner to try out skills and techniques and profit by mistakes in a framework which provides important elements of the environment without including those leading to danger or unnecessary complexity. Furthermore, it is claimed that simulations for example, not

only provide a reality experience which will enable transfer of learning, but also they are an effective method of teaching management practice to large numbers of students and often the only substitute available for supervised internship (Guruge, 1969).

These different views have been widely debated. In discussions on the pedagogics of the Swedish School Leaders Programme, it is reported that of the two approaches - simulations or immediate experience - the latter was adopted because much of the experience of simulations in training is from the United States (Ekholm, 1979). Furthermore, its use has predominantly been in preparation programmes rather than for training people already in the leadership role (as is the case in the Swedish programme). 'Courses' based on learning from (immediate) experience are increasingly widespread, one approach is the problem-solving action learning workshop advocated by Revans (1971). However as Bailey (1986) notes, while such approaches show promise, difficulties are still encountered in transferring new skills to the job.

The strengths and weaknesses of the alternative methods of helping students of educational management to integrate theory and practice are presented by Bolman (1976). He categorises methods as: 'academic' models (lectures, seminars and discussions which provide theory, knowledge, conceptual frameworks etc); 'analogue' models (cases and simulations which expose the learner to an analogue of the practice setting); and fieldwork models (placing students in the end-use environment). Considering each of these in turn, Bolman criticises academic models for their theoretical bias and their inefficiency in changing behaviour. Analogue models, he suggests can be criticised for focusing on analytical skills, without testing students' ability to actually use these skills. They are also difficult to use and evaluate. Finally, the problem with field study is that it is usually unstructured, and students may be unable to apply their academic training to the situation. Bolman concludes his critique by advocating what he calls a 'clinical analogue model' that utilises 'personal cases' or critical incidents generated by

participants in a learning situation. These he suggests can be structured and used in such a way as to provide evidence and experience of both theory and practice.

In sum, the need to bridge theory and practice, assumptions about how best adults learn, and the concept of the transfer of training (or learning) have been the motivating force behind the adoption of the more participatory and problem-solving training approaches. This is reflected in many of the reviews of methods which are or could be used in training educational managers both in the west and in developing countries (e.g. Farquhar, 1978; NIEPA, 1979; Virmani, 1980; Hughes, 1981; Pareek, 1981; Gray & Coulson, 1982; Inbar, 1982). There are however, many factors militating against the use of such non-traditional methods.

Many lecturers in universities stick to traditional methods because managing individualised or group-oriented systems, providing feedback, and collecting precise detail for the revision and improvement of courseware is complex (Bunderson, 1976). The development of in-basket exercises, simulations and role-playing situations is arduous and time-consuming; it demands far more creativity and activity than writing a paper in an 'ivory tower'. Many trainers lack the necessary skills to successfully exploit participatory methods, which can be demanding and threatening to both trainers and participants (Hopes, 1982). The trainer can no longer depend on being the teacher and the font of wisdom, but becomes a facilitator of a unique learning experience, and the participants are confronted with difficult situations, in which their responses and behaviours are exposed and challenged by their colleagues on the course.

Despite such constraints, many writers are optimistic about the new approaches to school management training. Gray and Coulson, having noted that the majority of programmes for UK heads are still normative and prescriptive, argue for the experiential approaches believing that:

Most managers will come to regard it as exciting and enlightening and will gain in self-confidence, develop new insights into the complexities of human behaviour, and learn important skills in managing and facilitating change. (1982, p. 32).

However in a more recent paper on the problems of helping heads to learn about management, Gray (1987) is more circumspect, and somewhat unsympathetic to heads faced with the novel experience of management programmes which emphasis personal development rather than specialised technical skills. He sees their difficulties as being both emotional and intellectual. One of the worrying forms of headteacher behaviour he suggests, is the judgemental nature of many of their responses to training situations. The readiness to criticise when things go wrong, may reflect a need to remain an 'outsider' to the training event.

There are certainly many logistical problems associated with the use of participatory methods. Such methods depend on small and/or large group work areas. However, as most in-service activities are heavily subscribed, space is usually at a premium, and for this reason sessions invariably lapse into the familiar lecture and plenary discussion methods (Hopes, 1982). Time is a major factor militating against the use of human relations techniques, which are best achieved by a series of events or experiences over a period of time:

... experienced group dynamics trainers know that the principles cannot be effectively practised and internalised in a couple of days or compressed neatly into a one week course at an institute for in-service training. (Hopes, 1982, p. 13).

The question of trainer expertise and the more fundamental question of who should be the trainer has been debated at a number of European conferences on educational management training (Buckley, 1985). In both the French and Swedish training schemes for school heads new additions to the project training teams are themselves given training. The new UK training initiative also includes special longer courses for experienced managers from schools who are then expected to contribute to the staffing and organising of the shorter basic courses for school heads. Increasing attention is thus being given to training the trainers but 'training the trainers' means more than passing on know-how for certain techniques in running courses, it also requires the development of skills in analysing objectives, selecting

appropriate methods for their achievement and developing relevant materials (Hopes, 1982).

In Third World countries the availability of trained trainers is a major reason against the more extensive use of non-traditional methods for, as Hughes (1981) observes, the number of capable course organisers and the number of people qualified to teach on courses in developing countries is exceedingly small. The problem is, as Pareek comments:

Generally professional trainers lack familiarity with education management and education managers lack familiarity with the training technology. (1981, p. 7)

It is a question of finding the appropriate mix of practitioners and academics to work together in the training team. Significantly, the important task of training the trainers is now being given priority through projects such as the recently established SIDA/Unesco initiative for training Anglophone Africa educational management trainers (Unesco, Breda, 1985).

One of the most critical issues surrounding non-traditional methodology is effectiveness - the extent to which learning is actually transferred to the job. A major concern is whether methods developed in a different (e.g. business) context are acceptable in educational management training. An equally important issue, in discussions of Third World training, is the appropriateness of the methods in different cultural settings. However, other than a few passing references (e.g. Upsani, 1980) there has been little discussion in the published literature, of the effectiveness or otherwise of non-lecture methods in the Third World.

The comments of Gue have some bearing on the matter. He reports evaluations of educational administrator training projects in and for the Third World, which have shown the difficulties which non-western cultures encounter in moving from rote learning in one language to inquiry and seminar-type learning in another. In his assessment of three groups of students from different countries, he noted marked differences, with one national group being:

... completely at sea in an educational environment beyond both their language abilities and operating from different assumptions about learning (1977, p. 47).



To date perspectives on the question of the cultural appropriateness of methods mainly derives from other sectors (as discussed in section 2.4.1). Moreover, the evidence in the west for the effectiveness of the alternative methods for training educational management is itself sparse. Wynn (1972) suggests that the evaluation of non-traditional methods is particularly difficult because of the massive criterion problem. Such methods usually presume to stimulate both cognitive and affective development (orthodox methods are more directed towards cognitive development), and the latter - affective change - is very difficult to quantify.

Hentschel (1979) evaluating the impact of simulations in educational administrator training, suggests that evaluation is one of the most critical unresolved issues in the incorporation of simulated approaches in more traditional educational programmes. One problem is perhaps as Bolman (1976) observes, that the designers of simulations devote much effort to making simulations realistic, but pay less attention to the problem of learning efficiency.

Much of the 'evidence' regarding the benefits of such methods is subjective, random and derived from the opinion of participants and instructors. Thus over the years many theoretical and impressionistic appraisals have been made indicating a positive reaction to the use of case study methods in educational management training. There have been some more objective empirical studies such as that reported by Fisher (1972), which showed that the impact of the case method, as measured by change in attitudes and students' subsequent behaviour, was greater than traditional reading-discussion methods. A number of studies of specific simulation exercises have also been reported. For example an evaluation of 'Sortham Out', an exercise designed to provide insights into the problems associated with school committee decision-making, indicated that its aims were achieved (Taylor-Byrne, 1982). The internship approach, adopted as a means of encouraging transfer of learning and providing reality experiences alongside courses, has been more widely studied and positive evaluations have been reported in America (West, 1977; Erlandson, 1979; Stauffer, 1978).

Studies on the effectiveness of human relations training approaches in educational management are also thin on the ground. In America, research has indicated that those principals attending a two week human-relations National Training Laboratory Workshop who became actively involved in events were likely to try out new skills in schools (Miles, 1965), but that these changes in role behaviour didn't last through to the following year because of lack of support from teachers (Lansky, 1969). T-group work by itself was found not to have helped bring about increased effectiveness and team development in organisations (Friedlander, 1968), but in his review of a range of research, Schmuck maintains that transfer from workshop to school is possible with well designed workshops including human relations training, classroom diagnosis, problem solving techniques, and role play (Schmuck, 1968; 1982). Programmes in Britain which adopt group work as the main learning process have been found to be highly effective, with evidence of transfer to the job (Ballinger, 1985)

Human relations training has been a somewhat controversial issue in Sweden. The School Leaders Project focuses on developing human relations skills and accentuates experiential learning and direct applications of learning to the school situation as part of a continuous two year iterative development process. This approach adopts many contemporary concepts and techniques of group dynamics, communication theory and organisation development. Whether human relations skills can indeed be acquired via training may well depend on the attitudes of the participants, and research has revealed that a number of SLP participants have been unhappy about the emphasis on developing personal awareness, interpersonal and group relations skills. They want advice on the administrative, financial and legal aspect of the job (Pettigrew, 1982).

If we look at research on the effectiveness of methods when used in other areas of management training, the evidence is also limited. In the management education field for example, Burgoyne (1976) reviewed research on teaching methods and found no 'pure' research studies on case-study methods but a large number on T-Group and encounter group

methods. This he suggests is because there has been so much controversy about their possibly damaging psychological side effects.

Many reported studies are comparative, between one method and another. Thus Bligh (1971) provides an overview of comparative studies of the effectiveness of lecturing with other methods and draws conclusions concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the lecture method. A number of studies comparing the relative merits of the case method and business games have also been reported (e.g. Partridge & Scully, 1979; Rogers, 1977), but as Easterby-Smith observes, cases and games are likely to have distinctive strengths and weaknesses, which such comparative studies are unlikely to illuminate. Even if it were possible to demonstrate with consistency the superiority of one method over another, of greater value are insights into why this might be so and what might be the critical processes involved in the use of particular methods (Easterby-Smith, 1986). One such study, reported by Argyris (1980), demonstrated the key features of the trainers' role in conducting discussion around a particular case study, which helped contribute to learning.

Some useful insights into training methods can be drawn from research findings in the teacher education field. Joyce and Showers (1980) conclude on the basis of a two year effort to examine research on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies, that to be most effective training should include components of theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application. They used a two-dimensional matrix to analyse over 200 research studies on methods and training; one dimension comprising these five components of training (training methods), the other dimension being the different levels of impact on the learner - awareness, concepts and organised knowledge, principles and skills, application and problem solving. Their overall conclusion was that in training teachers all five components of training are needed to ensure the impact of training and promote the transfer of learning to the actual classroom situation. It is highly probable that the same holds true for the training of educational managers.

An analysis of methods has resulted in numerous attempts to produce 'models' for selecting 'appropriate' methods for training (e.g. ILO, 1982; Pfeiffer & Jones, 1977; Hawrylyshyn, 1975). McLeary and McIntyre (1974) focus specifically on the training of school administrators and present a table of suggestions of 'the extent to which a method, when competently employed, tends to be practical and effective in learning the designated skills at the levels desired'. They specify three levels of learning as familiarity, understanding and application, and categorise the skills to be learnt as technical, conceptual, and human. Using this framework they infer that simulation for example, will be an appropriate method for effecting an understanding and application of conceptual and technical skills, but inappropriate for familiarisation with human skills.

A more complex three dimensional model is presented by Pareek (1981). This compares eight training methods with respect to the criteria of helping participants to 'know', 'experience', 'practice' etc., and also on administrative criteria such as time, costs, materials and so on. The model does not however, specifically relate learning objectives, methods, and administrative criteria to educational administration training in developing countries.

None of these more elaborate models considers the impact of a combination of methods, such as using a lecture, followed by a discussion and subsequently a simulation exercise, an approach commonly adopted by trainers (and one found by Joyce and Showers to be effective in training teachers). What seems very evident as Argyle and Smith observe (1962), is that while few would question the value of participatory methods for mature students, what is not known, is what the right balance is between lectures and participatory methods, and of the latter, which are the most effective for training managers. Since there are so many complex interactions between the various decisions on methods it is difficult, indeed undesirable to adopt one strategy or to stick doggedly to the use of one particular method. All training methods have some comparative advantages and disadvantages which are also contingent upon the context, and there is unlikely to be such a thing as the

training method. In the final analysis, a decision to adopt a particular method may well be influenced by the availability of materials, however undesirable this may be.

#### Educational management training materials

A number of international materials development initiatives which aim to help improve the quality of Third World training provision were described earlier, and it was noted with the shortage of indigenous materials trainers still look to western sources for packaged materials. It is generally agreed that given the wide variety of settings, roles and functions, educational management training should be as context specific as possible. The problem of internationally produced materials is that they rarely meet each country's specific needs, and very careful appraisal of such material is clearly essential. A number of writers have cited examples of the problems of transferring training packages from America to other industrialised countries (e.g. Mulford, 1980), and these will be even more critical when it comes to first world - Third World transfer.

Where materials offer a degree of flexibility and can be readily adapted they may be of some use to trainers outside their country of origin, particularly for comparative purposes or to provide ideas for local materials development. As Bolam observes in discussing INSET courses:

If materials and training packages are to be produced either nationally or internationally, it is essential that they should be capable of adaptation to local and individual circumstances and that ways of facilitating such adaptation should be built in from the outset. (1982, p. 54).

Adaptation could consist of the renaming of characters and alteration of job descriptions and organisational features in a case study or role play, or more general re-wording to provide a 'recognisable' background and more realistic items for an in-basket exercise (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1983). Although it can be difficult to adapt materials, this is not always so and as a trainer who has used participant originated materials in multi-national groups observes: "it is often suprising how similar these

day-to-day problem situations can be across different cultures and continents". (Clarke, 1983, p. 38).

There comes a point however, at which it is more costly and time consuming to adapt and modify existing materials which do not altogether fit desired requirements, than to prepare new materials ab initio, and the advantages and disadvantages of adaptation have to be carefully weighed (Kaye, 1980). Significantly the modular approach to materials development is now extremely popular in educational circles, and modules can offer considerable flexibility and potential for local modification.

A further important point, often overlooked, is that where materials (either adapted in part and/or the originals) are copied in quantity, it may be necessary to consider the question of copyright. Institutions the world over infringe copyright, and there is little that publishers can do about it apart from mounting the test court case (as in the UK). Recognising this, some publishers remove copying restrictions on materials for institutional use.

What is self-evident is that the dearth of suitable materials in educational management training in Third World countries derives from numerous and understandable constraints. Whilst international initiatives to encourage the development and use of appropriate methods and materials are important, ultimately a national decision must be reached as to who should produce such materials given that there is an apparent demand for them. As the newly established specialist educational administrator training institutes in the Third World evolve, the situation should improve. Unesco's various activities in this area are an important contribution, and a feature of a number of recent workshops and seminars has been the development of trainer expertise in materials writing (Unesco, Roeap, 1983).

Educational management training is still evolving, and as this section has illustrated there are certain critical issues surrounding the quality and impact of provision which need to be urgently addressed. In doing so, there are many valuable lessons which educationists can learn from experiences in other fields.

## 2.4. THE EXPERIENCES IN OTHER FIELDS AND RELATED ISSUES

### 2.4.1 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

#### An overview of training provision in the Third World

Many parallels can be found in the literature discussing public administration and management development, both with respect to contextual and conceptual issues and the approaches to the problem of implementing administrative improvement. An interesting overview of the field is provided by Mathur (1983) a specialist in development administration. He notes that administrative capability is a crucial factor in the development process, and suggests that the shortages of trained manpower are a serious obstacle to development. Training is emerging as an important component in most technical assistance programmes of agencies such as the World Bank, but a major problem is that while the need for training is recognised, its impact to date has been rather limited (e.g. Onyemelukwe, 1973; Paul, 1983; Reilly, 1987) and there is still uncertainty as to how best it should be approached (Stone, 1978; Mathur, 1983).

Numerous public administration staff colleges were established in developing countries in the sixties. The problems the latter encountered with respect to their relevance (and the theoretical-practical orientation of courses), their status (vis a vis the practitioners and the academics), their location (as separate from or part of a higher educational establishment), their overall credibility (of provision and the quality of the teaching staff), have been well documented (e.g. Schaffer, 1974; Stone, 1978).

The focus of a number of discussions of public administration and management training has been the role of foreign assistance in institutional development. Of particular concern are the problems of transfer - the transmission of educational forms and practices from the donor to the recipient society (e.g. Eisemon, 1974; Sancheti, 1984). This issue features in several discussions of international assistance to the Third World as is highlighted in subsequent sections.

A number of writers have suggested that formal institutional training is inherently incapable of bringing about administrative change (e.g. Schaffer, 1974) and that

in practice training can seldom be radical because of the nature of bureaucratic systems (Reilly, 1979); training has brought little change because "those in power have a strong vested interest in ensuring that it does not" (Reilly, 1987, p. 29). However, although public administration training in the Third World has been disappointing and some institutions may even have inhibited progress, other alternatives, suggests Hoyle (1974), have no better record.

Other writers attempt to identify factors contributing towards success. Thus Stone reviewing the range and adequacy of public administration training in relation to system needs, suggests that the prerequisites for success are national commitment and adequate institutional infrastructures for training. He recommends more international collaboration and assistance particularly in the development of materials.

In the study prepared by Paul (1983) as a background paper to the World Development Report 1983, it is noted that the pattern and growth of training institutions in the Third World has increased fourfold (from 70 to 280) during the past two decades. The limited impact of public management training is attributed to the absence of, or inadequacies in, training policies; problems in the design and management of training institutions, and; the mismatch of programmes, curricula and methods to developing countries needs.

Similar conclusions were drawn by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa who overviewed the education and training of public servants in Africa identifying the need for greater government commitment, and stressing the importance of encouraging and developing local initiatives through international stimulation (UNECA, 1979).

The Commonwealth Secretariat has had a programme of activities concerned with public enterprise management and training. A series of seminars and workshops have discussed national policies and programmes of training, suggesting that the key pre-requisites for developing an effective training policy include: the clarification of responsibility for training, target groups, training needs, support, budget formulation, resources and curriculum development (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1979, 1979a).



A recent World Bank study (World Bank, 1985) reviews selected aspects of institutional development in education and training highlighting the experience of ILO, Unesco and the Bank in sub-Saharan Africa. The report recommends that the improvement of training in management and public administration needs to be approached through a variety of means, including: support for rationalizing the institutional base and promoting inter-sector collaboration; more careful selection of institutions to be developed as centres of excellence; development of training to cover induction as well as in-service training; the training of trainers and training institution managers; improvement in programme quality and support for materials preparation.

The performance of Third World management education institutes has also been critically examined (e.g. in India, Ganesh, 1980). In an assessment by Stifel (1977), the factors which contributed to the success of institutions such as the Asian Institute of Management, include: organisational form (the absence of inflexible government control, some autonomy, ability to meet changing needs); multipurpose character (complementary relationship of management teaching with research and consultancy, leading to a bridging of the gap between academics and practitioners); educational model (a well defined model of business enterprise management, a conceptual coherence and established record of success in private enterprise management); leadership (leaders with a sense of purpose, stature, legitimacy); and appropriate size (not too small); faculty (young, with reward and promotion system). Many of these lessons could be equally applicable to the new batch of educational administration training institutes.

It is evident that a key concern of many of these discussions is the quality of training provision. Attention has focused on training the trainers (e.g. Mathur, 1983; World Bank 1985), and the contribution of a wider range of training methods and materials to ensure more effective transfer of learning. The use of non-traditional methods in Third World management training institutions is quite widespread. Thus the report of the Committee of the International Academy of Management (CIAM, 1981) reveals

that most institutions involved in management education in the developing countries report the use of a variety of methods, principally lecture and case method; some institutions in Asia and Latin America reporting a 70 per cent use of the case method.

Public enterprise management training institutes in the Third World also report the use of a wide range of methods. In a survey undertaken by the Commonwealth Secretariat (1979), a substantial majority of institutes sampled reported regular use of lecture-discussion, syndicates, case methods, role playing and exercises; least commonly practised methods included T-groups, programmed instruction and correspondence study. Reasons given by trainers for their infrequent use or non-use of different types of methodology, were, in decreasing order of frequency of responses: too much time needed during programme; expertise not available to handle the method or develop the materials required; method not appropriate for programmes as provided; size of programme intake limits or prevents its use; little evidence of method effectiveness; method conflicts with educational backgrounds or cultural attitudes and; objectives achieved by other methods. The most problematic method was T-groups, which a number of institutes reported as having abandoned. The cross-cultural appropriateness of such methods is considered in the next sub-section.

In sum, it would seem that the education sector could draw some useful lessons from the longer history of activities in the non-education sector. Equally, much could be gained through shared discussion of common problems. Some inter-sector comparisons have been made, and the overall picture that emerges is, suggests Singh and Gurugè, (1977), that in contrast to what is taking place in courses in the field of public administration, educational administration has yet to come to terms with the basic problems of personnel management in a system in which tasks are becoming increasingly differentiated. Lungu discusses the critical issues in the preparation of African educational administrators and concludes:

The dismal failure of many public administration

training institutes in African countries, despite massive support from the UN, could partly be attributed to the insensitivity of the organisers to issues similar to the ones raised here" [educational administrator training]... "not all the issues can be successfully resolved, but being aware of them, may go a long way in helping avoid the pitfalls of hasty planning of training programmes. (1983, p. 95).

#### Transferring management concepts across disciplines and cultures

In a number of Third World countries, the paucity of specialist educational management training provision until recently, has resulted in the education sector making quite widespread use of administrative staff colleges. This was found in the International Bureau of Education study of educational management training provision (Haag, 1982). How much of this training was 'training-in-common', involving heterogeneous groups of managers, administrators and educationists is not clear. Where this occurs it is most likely to be amongst the higher administrator cadres as is the case in Kenya, where joint courses have been run for system administrators (field officers) at the Kenya Institute of Administration.

The joint training of personnel with responsibility for aggregate public administration be it civil service organisation, development planning, budgeting etc. has been advocated at Unesco seminars (e.g. Unesco, Oreac, 1978), and many feel that such integration can be very beneficial. There are also arguments for making some use of the more extensive training expertise which exists in the business management or the public administration sector, as has been the case on some experimental headship training courses in the UK (Welton, 1985). There is undoubtedly scope for the transfer of training practice between different sectors of management training, but as Bailey observes:

...there is no case, even within industrial management, for a universal pattern of training. Consequently, simplistic analogy and the wholesale importation of training models from one management situation to

another is not a serious option. (1986, p. 216).

The approach raises interesting questions concerning the commonality of management and administrative concepts. Some light is thrown on this issue by Miklos who surveyed developments in training-in-common for education, public and business administrators, in America. He found a few examples of joint courses, which redefined the accepted disciplinary boundaries, adopted the 'school of administration' concept and provided a programme made up of core components and electives. He felt that:

The debate as to whether administration in various types of organisations is substantially different or the same has gradually been resolved to the generally accepted position that administrative processes have both common and unique characteristics. (1972, p. 26).

The major barrier against further initiatives in this direction seem to be the organisational and institutional barriers to training-in-common. These Miklos highlighted as being boundary defense, institutional resistance to change, the problems of identifying administrative characteristics which are common or unique, and the different career patterns in different administrative specialisms. There is a need he suggested for further cross-institutional study of administration to stimulate developments in generic approaches to administration programmes.

Miklos was commenting on course provision in America over ten years ago, and it is interesting to note that recently in the UK and other European countries there have been an increasing number of training activities at which managers from education and industry have been brought together. This development assumes that heads, for example, can learn how to run their schools by modelling themselves on enlightened examples of managers in industry. A critique of this view is given in 'Education plc?' (Bedford Way Paper, 1984), in which it is argued that commercial management practice is not only inappropriate but hostile to the kind of considerations which are crucial for headteachers; the executive function of heads should be subordinate to their professional concerns. Al-Khalifa

(1986) also questions the application of industrial management models to schools, noting differences with respect to organisational boundaries, accountability and control relations, goals and organisational functions and the allocation of resources.

The other facet to discussions of generic approaches concerns the transferability of western management concepts to Third World countries. Discussions of this issue draw attention to the danger of Third World countries embracing western notions uncritically and replicating western business management models, the need to pay attention to the underlying assumptions of such models, and a general lack of understanding by outside experts of the administrative and socio-cultural-political norms pertaining in the recipient country (Moris, 1977; Stifel, 1977; Reilly, 1987).

Much of the discussion focuses on the content of courses. Thus Kiggundu (1983), reviewed numerous articles on development administration and found that writers who focused on the technical core (organisational tasks and techniques) were most likely to find no significant problem in the use of conventional theory in developing countries, but that this was not the case in the human relations skills areas; when the environment is involved, the theory developed for western settings was not felt to be applicable. Maggagulu (1983), in his review of leadership theories with respect to cross-cultural contexts, also concludes that culture makes a difference. Majasan sums the problem up as follows:

Although the art of administration is international, Africa has unique problems which require special analysis and unique treatment in order to facilitate her gaining enough confidence to train her own administrators.... (1974, p. 26).

The view that a uniform international management model exists is challenged on a number of fronts in a special issue of the journal Management Education and Development devoted to this theme. For example, Jones (1986) draws on data from a recent study of managerial thinking in Malawi and highlights many examples of tensions and problems which can occur when western management practices are transplanted

into a non-western environment. His findings provide evidence of both the tendencies described as the 'convergence-divergence' dichotomy in much of the literature on transferability - the view that the 'culture of production' is so pervasive that it will sweep away local cultural variations vs. the belief that imported norms will be modified or rejected in the face of an enduring cultural distinctiveness. This inconclusiveness:

...demands that strategies for management development should recognise the complex and distinctive realities of the contexts in which managers perform. The search for relevance will, I suspect, be a crucial task. (1986, p. 216).

The appropriateness of western originated business management training strategies and methods in Third World countries has received growing attention. In an early contribution, Thiagarajan (1969) highlights a number of important issues and problems involved in designing and conducting management training programmes in developing countries, particularly behavioural science-oriented programmes. Based on experience in running programmes in Asia, he stresses the importance of ensuring that management training is integrated with the prevailing social and organisational systems. He observes that traditional rote-learning and the status difference between teacher and taught militates against the small group behaviourally-oriented program. He questions the relevance of the laboratory human relations methods as they are based on alien assumptions about student-teacher roles. There are differences in the Third World with regards to participation motivation and in the potential for transfer of learning because of the more critical dysfunctions that exist between learning and real life attitudes, the complexities of reward, selection and promotion procedures and the "resistant organisational climate". Thiagarajan concludes that whilst there are some universally related and unique areas of behaviour, there is "little systematic evidence as to where and to what extent cross-national differences exist and what environmental factors explain these differences" (1969, p. 18).

The past two decades have seen a number of major contributions in this area, in particular the research into cultural differences in managerial values by Hofstede (1980) and Laurent (1983), and recent perspectives on managing in different cultures (Joynt and Warner, 1985; Muna, 1980). It is of interest to consider the whole question of cross-national differences further through an examination of the literature on cross-cultural psychology.

#### 2.4.2 CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

##### Cross-cultural psychology

The significance of the cross-cultural perspective is that it encourages the questioning of assumptions about human nature and of whether any given relationship is valid only in the western world or whether it holds universally (Binnie-Dawson, 1981). But as Berry and Marshall observe:

There is a danger of the reaction to the myth of cultural universalism being the further myth of cultural particularism. If this latter myth dominates it becomes impossible for anyone within any one culture to say anything meaningful or helpful to another. (1986, p. 162).

The search for psychological universals remains inconclusive, but there would appear to be strong support that western psychological findings are frequently valid at the cross-cultural level (Munroe, 1980). Several writers have examined this issue with reference to education in Third World countries. Much of this work relates to attempts to improve school curricula, but in considering how findings from various branches of psychology can be utilised, progress has in the main been slow and patchy (Thomas, 1981). There is a need, argues Thomas, for greater co-operation between curriculum workers in developing countries and cross-cultural psychologists; such co-operation could focus on teaching styles appropriate for different groups, for example possible differences in cognitive development between urban and rural children.

Cross-cultural psychological research has frequently been concerned with possible cultural variations in cognitive development, but findings remain largely

inconclusive. Thus Dasen and Heron (1981) after an extensive review of research on the cultural factors affecting Piaget's theory, are unable to reach any conclusions regarding the universality of his theories. Most studies in the field are concerned with school classroom teaching and learning and there appear to be few discussions of the universality of adult development theories and their implications for adult learning.

Whilst there have been a number of studies on the impact of adult education in developing countries, particularly with respect to non-formal education programmes such as the Tanzanian National Radio Study Campaigns (e.g. Hall & Dodds, 1974), there is little work which focuses more specifically on adult education methods. Namuddu (1980) presents an African view on this. He argues that the research needed to make even a tentative theory concerning the processes of learning among the African population has yet to be done. The importance of helping students to learn how to learn needs to be encouraged at an early age but the examination system mitigates against this. He recommends a re-examination of African traditional educational systems and practices as a way of helping in developing a model for modern education. Other comments on learning and teaching African adult students have stressed the importance of the use of a variety of techniques to take account of the distinctive needs and motivations of adult participants (Obanya, 1980).

A non-formal adult educator has discussed the cultural appropriateness issue, posing the question "Considering Thai, and more generally Asian values, to what extent can a learner-centered approach be appropriate and effective?". Kindervatter (1983) postulates that Asian cultural values are based on hierarchical patterns of human relationships in which there are clearly defined roles of dominance and deference and subtle communication of personal views and feelings. These would appear to conflict with the active participation fundamental to a learner-centered approach. However, he maintains, these patterns dominate only certain relationships and certain contexts - particularly institutionalised learning and the formal classroom



situation. In rural areas a picture emerges of informal learning through peer interaction - villagers sitting together in informal discussion groups. If the teacher acts in a formal classroom manner, the learners will assume formal roles. If the teacher acts as facilitator, the group will behave more similarly to the informal discussion patterns. He concludes therefore, that a learner-centered approach may actually re-inforce rather than conflict with traditional Thai values; learner-centered processes may enhance systems for group learning which already exist. The issue seems to be one of context.

This view of the learning process is illustrated in the influential work of the radical educator Paulo Freire, who believes that the only genuine non-formal education involves the ending of the authoritarian role of the educator with learners being equal partners in the learning process. His functional literacy programmes in Brazil are based on the concept of 'conscientization' (the arousing of positive self-concept) a philosophy which reflects psycho-social theories of adult learning originating in the west (e.g. Maslow, 1954; Bruner, 1966; Rogers, 1969). Such a philosophy is an essential feature of Revans' (1982) work, and the group-oriented methods and problem-solving focus of his Action Learning approach are thought to be appropriate for Third World management development (Jones, 1986).

Despite such Third World applications, the research community does not yet appear to have addressed questions concerning the cross-cultural validity of western models of cognitive development and the implications for training methodology. However, the growing literature on cross-cultural training (e.g. Casse, 1981; Reeder, 1986; Berry and Marshall, 1986) is beginning to create a greater awareness of the need to be sensitive to cultural differences.

#### The transfer issue

A further cross-cultural perspective focuses on the issue of transfer, and associated concerns about cultural domination and the role of aid in maintaining dependency. The many facets to this wider cross-cultural debate are revealed in the literature; for example such issues are

raised in the contributions to the ULIE Workshop on 'Reproduction and Dependency in Education' (Treffgarne (ed), 1984), on: the Ford Foundation's philanthropy in Indian education (Sancheti); school curriculum development in Kenya (Lillis); world communications (Rodwell); educational aid and dependency (Hurst); and the role of international organisations in education (Dale).

The transfer issue may be formulated in terms of 'cultural imperialism' - the transfer of western norms and practices (Carnoy, 1974), or of 'neo-colonialism' (Altbach, 1971). Thus Altbach has discussed at length the role of foreign aid in book publishing (Altbach, 1971, 1975) and drawn attention to the fact that very often the basic relationship is one of dependence with Third World countries importing books and materials from the North or relying on expatriate firms. A similar set of arguments has been presented in discussions of media communications in the Third World, and it is evident that such analysis can help contribute towards a greater understanding of the nature of communications development and assist those searching for alternative paths of locally-determined media system development - paths which reflect substantial measures of autonomy and indigenous ingenuity (Rodwell, 1984).

Education is a major cultural change agent in Third World countries because of the adoption of western education models (structures, curriculum patterns, textbooks, methods, foreign advisers, English, etc.). For this reason it is important to take care in too readily advocating the cross-cultural transfer of educational technology (Borden, 1983). As Coombs (1985, p.243) points out:

International and domestic educational circles alike have tended to gloss over the local cultural complexities and to encourage the adoption of standardised international educational formulas that were wrongly assumed to fit all situations.

The issues of transfer, cultural bias, and dependency have important implications for discussions of educational development. They can be explored further through an examination of some of the literature on innovation in education.

### 2.4.3 INNOVATION IN EDUCATION

The experience of the past quarter of a century's efforts at educational reform in both developing and industrialised countries alike reveals that it appears to be the rule rather than the exception for efforts to implement innovations, be they major organisational changes or small scale curriculum innovations, to be less than wholly successful (Hurst, 1983). This section will explore some of the literature on innovation in education to highlight issues which have implications for approaches to educational management training; in particular curriculum and materials development.

#### Curriculum innovation and materials development

A major focus for aid to education in Third World countries has been in support for school curriculum development. The literature on this topic has not been searched in depth, but the important contribution of Hawes (e.g. 1979) and the series of evaluation reports of curriculum projects in certain African countries issued as African Studies in Curriculum Development & Evaluation have been noted. The latter for example, are part of a research project under the auspices of the African Curriculum Organisation supported by the German Agency for Technical Co-operation, and they provide valuable insights into the problems and issues faced by specific countries.

Lillis (1985) discusses issues linked to attempts to transfer school knowledge across cultures in the context of secondary school curricula development, adoption and implementation in post-independent Kenya. He describes two specific curriculum innovations introduced by expatriate educational experts through official educational aid programmes, and argues that:

...the presence of metropolitan assumptions about what constitutes valid school knowledge and valid means of transmitting and assessing such knowledge was the major force operating on these curricula to ensure the continuity of Western educational forms. (1985, p. 80).

The lessons from analyses such as these is that there are many unresolved questions surrounding the determinants

of the curriculum change process. In particular, as Lillis notes, the nature of and inter-relationships between variables such as: indigenous knowledge, the contextual features of subjects, local modes of learning and cognition. Such concerns are equally applicable to curriculum and materials development for Third World educational management training.

A further understanding of the factors that determine the success and failure of change programmes in general and curriculum innovation and materials development projects in particular, comes through an examination of the literature on innovation in the west. There have been a large number of American studies of specific innovatory projects (e.g. Gross et al. 1971), and of change efforts in general (e.g. Crandall et al. 1983; Fullan, 1982; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Herriott & Gross, 1979). Numerous studies seek to explain why many of the large scale primary and secondary school curriculum and materials development projects of the last two decades have had limited impact.

A framework for considering innovation studies and different perspectives on innovations is provided by House (1979). He delineates a shift from a technological focus (on the innovation itself), to the political (the innovation-in-context, particularly studies of innovation failure), and the cultural perspective (the context itself and the process of implementation). The technological perspective is exemplified in the large scale research, development and diffusion (R D & D) projects of the late sixties in America, characterised by economy of scale - the production of generalizable products for widespread use. The approach has an implicit assumption of the 'doctrine of transferability', and some projects even attempted to produce 'teacher proof' curriculum materials.

One particularly illuminating American study which adopts a political perspective, is the Rand change agent study (Berman & McLaughlin, 1974-8). This attempted to identify factors affecting the initiation, implementation and continuation of some 300 projects in American schools. It was found that significant factors affecting implementation were the characteristics of the

institutional setting, the implementation strategy employed and the scope of the change planned. The extent of continuation of the change effort at classroom levels was determined by the implementation strategy, the organisational climate, and leadership and teacher characteristics.

The UK experiences in educational innovation are also widely documented, with many focusing on the curriculum innovation efforts of the Schools Council. Upwards of 180 curriculum projects were funded by the Schools Council, the central curriculum development agency which functioned between 1964-1982. In its early days the Schools Council adopted a centralist approach whereby a project team (usually seconded teachers and lecturers) were funded for upwards of five years to develop and trial ideas and materials in a particular curriculum area, with the outcomes, (reports, materials etc.), being published.

Over the years the Schools Council strategy gave way to a more interactive style, where project teams worked with practising teachers. Support was given to smaller-scale regional and local initiatives, and there was an increasing emphasis on school based curriculum innovation (Schools Council, 1979). This shift reflected both concern and disillusion with large scale top-down approaches (which it was argued neglected dissemination and implementation strategies), and a growing awareness of how vulnerable innovations are at the stage of dissemination - the cultural context.

Many curriculum development projects start well and fail to get institutionalised. Thus 'Nuffield Junior Science' an apparently effective British project fizzled out because funding ended and teachers were left without the support they still needed (Wastnedge, 1972). The pressures on teachers to go back to traditional methods are strong (Shipman, 1972). A common phenomenon is 'innovation without change' (Macdonald & Ruddock, 1971), where a curriculum innovation is taught extremely badly by teachers who acquire the materials without the necessary training and who either slavishly adhere to them or else mix them up with other conflicting methods. This means that even when implemented,

changes in the materials used in the classroom may not be matched by changes in methodology or teacher philosophy.

The importance of a carefully planned project dissemination strategy, including adequate provision for training and support for teachers was a key feature of one most controversial and well documented Schools Council project's, the Humanities Curriculum Project (Ruddock, 1976; Humble & Simmons, 1978). There is however, little documented evidence on the effectiveness of the various alternative dissemination strategies. It would seem that each project has to design its own strategy in order to ensure that its message is effectively transmitted (Boardman, 1980).

The Schools Council's concern with issues such as the above together with external criticisms of its effort led it to undertake an assessment of its effectiveness in reaching schools. The 'Impact and Take Up Project' (Steadman, 1981) found that those projects that gained most acceptance by teachers were ones which: offered complete courses including pupils' materials; established assessment or examination links; focused on a clear target group of teachers; and which did not cross subject boundaries. The school and project factors associated with high levels of adoption and implementation included: the level of teacher commitment, the active support of immediate superiors and peer group involvement. Significantly, projects with high take-up rates had nearly all been disseminated through in-service courses, and a key determinant of real impact was often some form of continuing support for teachers.

Many studies in the past decade have shown that project implementation is often only partial, that project aims are often misunderstood or distorted and that adaptation frequently takes place both in the innovation and the system in which it is introduced (Shipman, 1974; Brown 1976; Eggleston, 1977). One of the difficulties facing curriculum evaluators, is the criteria to be used in judging success. One concern is whether to focus only on innovations that have been actually 'adopted' by schools or whether to take a 'mutual adaptation' perspective. If it is the latter, with the materials being used in a way that is alien to the

project philosophy, a judgement needs to be made as to whether this is really take up (Raggatt, 1983).

Certainly adaptation is more usual than adoption with the user modifying innovations. Indeed many of the second generation of national projects were deliberately designed to be adaptable to local conditions (Sutherland, 1983), with the idea of teacher-proof materials being thought untenable. This illustrates the trend noted by House (1979) towards a cultural perspective, where the concern is with the processes of implementation - including the management of change.

#### The management of change

Many of the factors noted above as contributing to the success or failure of curriculum innovations would be suggested by commonsense. Moreover, they are equally applicable to the processes of implementing other changes in education in both developed and developing countries. The knowledge about change and school improvement has been well summarised (e.g. Clark et al. 1984; Firestone & Corbett, 1986), however as Fullan observes:

A decade and a half of intensive research has produced impressive and increasingly precise and convergent insights into the change process, yet we are just at the very beginning of deriving implications for improving the management of change. (1986, p. 73).

What comes out very clearly from the literature on educational innovation is that initiation is not implementation and institutionalisation. This is reflected in the factors which Fullan (1982) identifies as being those which affect adoption and implementation. The former include: the quality of innovations, access to information, advocacy from central administration, teacher and community pressure/support/apathy/opposition, availability of funds, and problem-solving and bureaucratic incentives for adoption. His perspective is phenomenological, examining the significance of the innovation to those actually involved in the process, and the ultimate aim of implementation should be to develop the capacity of the system, school or individual to process further innovations.

This last point brings into sharp focus the role of the school or institutional head in the management of change, and there is compelling research evidence on the critical role of the head in facilitating or inhibiting change in schools (Fullan, 1986). Management training and development for this role has gained increasing prominence, although as Fullan warns, "we run the risk of vastly underestimating how difficult it is to conduct effective training in the management of change" (p. 84). Fullan is commenting on western experiences, but this is equally relevant to any consideration of training for the management of change in Third World countries; a reflection derived from the writers' own observations on the use of materials on managing change (Rodwell, 1986) in Third World workshops.

One point of contention is the extent to which Third World heads have autonomy with respect to the change process, and the applicability of western implementation strategies. Certainly strategies which have and are evolving in industrialised countries are being adopted by Third World countries. For example, there are moves towards the more participatory strategies of curriculum development, with countries beginning to adopt policies that incorporate teacher-education institutions in the total process of curriculum development. Institutions have established design groups that are developing learning packages for teacher trainers, based on competencies derived from tasks expected of teachers in the new curriculum (Unesco, Roep 1979).

However, caution is required before too readily concluding that the latest trends in implementation strategies in the west are necessarily what Third World countries ought to emulate, as Hurst (1983) suggests in a critical review of the literature on educational innovation. He draws the more general conclusion that it is highly unlikely that innovations will get adopted unless certain key conditions are accepted; these he summarises as - communication, relevance or desirability, effectiveness or reliability, feasibility, efficiency, trialability, and adaptability - maintaining that they reflect the commonsense logic of people generally confronted with a proposal that



they do things in a new way. His examination of the experiences of educational change in both developing and developed countries is presented within a framework of the various perceptions on, and models of change (some of which will be discussed further in chapter three). It also derives from a perspective of the role of international aid in educational innovation and development, the topic of the final sub-section.

#### 2.4.4 INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE IN EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

##### The impact of aid

There is a large amount of documentation on international assistance projects in Third World countries; much of this is internal, confidential and/or not readily available, such as the World Bank Project Appraisal and Completion reports. The published literature on the impact of aid for educational development presents global and comparative perspectives, descriptive accounts of specific projects, and selected 'lessons from experience' offered by some agencies. There are only a few more comprehensive analyses, such as Havelock & Huberman's Solving Educational Problems (Havelock and Huberman, 1977), and the detailed assessment of the Unesco/UNDP Experimental World Literacy Programme (Unesco/UNDP, 1976).

The latter study for example, stirred considerable interest in the assessment of innovative non-formal education in the Third World, and stimulated development of applied methodological research in this field. This is in contrast to evaluation of many other kinds of externally aided educational evaluation work "which has met with remarkably little success". (1976, p. 151).

The evaluation of the impact of aid to Third World education presents problems on a number of fronts, as was highlighted in section 1.3.1. Many projects in this sector are concerned primarily with human resource development - to improve human skills and bring about benefits of a qualitative nature - and there are issues surrounding the choice of evaluation methodology and criteria for assessing results (OECD, 1972; Eichelberger, 1979). Systematic evaluations of social programmes (including educational

projects) are a relatively recent development, co-inciding with the growth and refinement of social research methods (Freeman, 1979). A number of donors have produced methodological guidelines (e.g. Unesco, 1979/80).

International assistance represents a considerable investment of resources, and in addition to studies of the impact of aid in terms of actual educational outcomes, are analyses of costs and benefits. Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985) present a detailed discussion of cost-benefit analysis in their consideration of educational investment choices in developing countries. They see CBA as an aid to judgement (rather than the ultimate tool), since measurement in education, particularly the likely economic benefits, can never be completely precise.

In many cases a technical assistance programme may be of too small a scale to justify an individual evaluation. This has been the case with many of the UK's Overseas Development Administration technical assistance projects, but some form of project report is still required. The ODA has a special unit for evaluation with work focusing primarily on specific projects and hence countries. Evaluation is seen as an important management tool to ensure systematic learning from experience. This is evident in its report synthesising the findings from a range of evaluations and highlighting points which are relevant and replicable across a range of sectors (ODA, 1983).

It is clear that the importance of learning from experience is now widely recognised (OECD, 1975), and in recent years the ODA, in common with other donors has expanded its evaluation work considerably, reflecting a desire to increase the effectiveness of aid. This form of 'quality control' for improving the impact of aid can be considered alongside the more general perspectives on international assistance.

#### Perspectives on aid

The donor agencies perspectives on aid are evident in the aforementioned internal documents and in the occasional publications of summaries of lessons from experience. Examples of the latter include the United States Agency for

International Development (AID) report, AID and Education: A Sector Report on Lessons Learned (Warren, 1984), and a number of reports on the World Bank experience. These range from multi-sector reports such as Investing in Development: Lessons of World Bank Experience, (Baum & Tolbert, 1985), to very specific reports - Strengthening Educational Management: A review of World Bank Assistance (Noor, 1985). An interesting cross-agency report is that prepared by representatives from Unesco, the World Bank, and ILO on Institutional Development in Education and Training in Sub-Saharan African Countries (World Bank, 1985).

These examinations of the lessons of international aid are from the perspective of the donor. Recent years have seen an increasing awareness of the importance of international co-operation both between donors and recipients, and within the donor community, and this has led to a number of international gatherings. One example is the European Aid Donors' Conference held in May 1986 which focused on higher education. This apparently "started the ball rolling in European Co-operation" (Iredale, 1987).

A notable example of such an international gathering was the 1984 Windsor Conference on "Education Priorities in Sub-Saharan Africa", sponsored by ULIE and the ODA, with financial support from the latter. This brought together high level officials from African countries and representatives from British Universities and major donors, for wide ranging discussions on educational priorities and aid responses (Hawes and Coombe, 1986).

A further source of perspectives on international assistance can be derived from those in the academic community who write on donors' policies and strategies of implementation. Such critiques - identifying problems and analysing issues - reflect both the authors' own Third World experience and their ideological stance, and in themselves help set the trend for new international aid agendas; as was suggested in chapter one. Such contributions appear regularly in journals such as Prospects; for example Carnoy's review of World Bank policies (Carnoy, 1980), and the special 1983 issue on aid strategies and educational development, which included articles by Hurst, Sifuna,

Reiff, Guruge, Aklilu Habte, and Myers. A special issue of Comparative Education (1981) was also devoted to the theme of aid and educational development. Such contributions reveal a great diversity of perspectives, but certain commonalities and critical issues emerge. A few issues will be highlighted here, particularly those concerning the limitations of aid and the more general strategic concerns.

### Some critical issues

The major message coming through in discussions of international assistance is the need for improved donor co-operation; this came up at the Windsor conference and at the London Symposium held in 1985 to assess the World Bank's role in "Recovery in the Developing World" (World Bank, 1986). The report of this notes one speakers' suggestion that:

... the Bank could make a great contribution to the cause of international aid by stressing the need and increasing the capacity to share information about lessons learned from experience by the aid agencies.... lenders had learned from their own mistakes but had repeated each other's mistakes ... because of weak feedback mechanisms within the donor community. (1986, p. 117).

Another point which has been made concerns the approaches adopted by agencies, especially the 'project' approach. Some commentators feel that the emphasis on projects rather than on wider programmes, may of itself be detrimental to aid efforts. Coombs (1985, p. 307) describes this succinctly:

External assistance projects have been afflicted for years by a disease known as 'projectitis' .... the underlying premise is that the designers of the project have an uncanny ability to foresee and provide for all contingencies and that if the implementers stick faithfully to the plan, timetable, and budget, all will go well and the objectives will be achieved.

The narrow and specific focus of the project approach may have advantages from the agencies point of view but not necessarily from the recipients. Coombs notes however, that in recent years external agencies have begun to cure

themselves of this disease and to become more amenable to providing broader programme support, not linked to a specific institution or locality but to strengthening infrastructural elements and processes. This may be more in respect of multilateral than bilateral aid. Thus it is apparent that a major trend in British aid to education is towards developing 'packages' of assistance, or projects with specific time bound objectives (ODA, 1986).

Coombs (1985) also discusses the faulty assumptions underlying international assistance, making specific reference to the major Unesco programme, 'The Experimental World Literacy Program' (EWLP). He suggests that frequently there is a tendency to assume that there are international standards and specifications and a universal model for getting things done. The planners of EWLP had assumed at the outset that developing countries had not made better progress in literacy because they lacked the necessary competency. The solution was to bring joint international competence to bear in the various countries under the leadership of Unesco; this strategy ignored individual countries' particular set of parameters and generally undermined the success of the programme.

The starting point for any initiative is the diagnosis of needs and priorities, and this is clearly a joint recipient-donor task. Indeed it has been argued that governments should give greater emphasis to this themselves, to avoid the ascendancy of what King (1986, p. 34) calls the external aid agenda over the internal agenda, with the associated problem that priorities are determined more forcibly by the donor than the recipient.

The partnership approach is now widely advocated. It derives from a critical appraisal of previous approaches and orientations. These concerns were implicit in many of the contributions to the Windsor conference (Hawes and Coombe, 1986, p. 56). But the problems encountered in international assistance to educational development can only partly be attributed to the political dimensions of the aid process and as some of the above comments suggest, there are also issues surrounding the efficiency and impact of the aid with respect to aid strategies and procedures.

## Strategies

A range of alternative strategies of international assistance to education have been adopted. Chapter One (section 1.2.1) summarised those deployed in strengthening educational management in terms of direct training provision (either in-country or out-of-country); institutional building; and more general development of national training capacities. Previous sections have discussed these strategies as they pertain to education management, and it is of interest to highlight a few key points concerning more general experiences of such strategies which emerge from the literature.

A major form of technical assistance is support for out-of-country training, and a number of writers have addressed the question of the impact of such training. This is an issue which is clearly a dual responsibility of both governments and providing institutions. Thus Gue, commenting on Canadian training aid suggests that Canada as a country, and the universities themselves;

... have a moral accountability to themselves, to their supporters, and to the developing country concerned to determine the effectiveness of the development programmes into which they have poured so much energy. (1977, p. 49).

Indeed, despite the increasingly prevalent mood of disenchantment and outright questioning of the relevance of overseas training for Third World students, few evaluation studies are reported. An assessment of the impact of out-of-country training presents considerable problems to the evaluator. As Livingstone observes in a foreword to a report on an evaluation workshop organised by the British Council:

... between the extremes of a somewhat myopic optimism and of a profound skepticism about the efficacy of such procedures, there exist in the middle ground, uncertainty and a sense of frustration at our apparent inability to test with any degree of credibility the outcomes of the varied, declared objectives of our association with overseas students. (1978, p. 4).

While evaluation studies may be of limited value in proving the impact or otherwise of overseas training, they

have an important role to play in helping to improve the nature of the provision. Thus the British Council has, since 1978 been mounting evaluation exercises involving follow-up studies of returning trainees; usually a year or more after training (British Council, 1981; Thomas, 1983). In addition, they mounted a questionnaire survey of all Technical Cooperation Training Programme (TCTP) study fellows in Britain in 1981 before their return home. This study focused on all areas of training, although some course specific (e.g. educational administration courses) data is included. It has given rise to both positive conclusions (high levels of satisfaction and perceptions of success and usefulness) and negative conclusions (shortcomings in preparation and briefing), and has provided many valuable lessons for improving the quality of the Programme (Williams, 1985).

Institutional providers in the UK meet annually under the auspices of the Association of Teachers of Overseas Education (ATOE), to discuss the issues surrounding the training of overseas students. The most recent conference focused on management in education and a key concern was in ensuring that provision was meeting the diverse training needs of the overseas educational administrator (Hughes, 1986/7). This is difficult since often training needs are not clearly defined by the trainees' employers or the trainees themselves (Garvey, 1987).

A particular problem inherent in training overseas students is that of the transfer of learning. Thus the University of Birmingham undertook a follow-up study of participants who had attended Commonwealth courses in education from 1960-1979. The replies revealed that one of the major problems ex-students faced was the frustration they experienced in trying to put the ideas and techniques learned into practice in their jobs (Scarboro, 1980).

A further problem facing returning students is re-assimilation into the system, particularly their acceptance by older officials who may have received limited training (e.g. Havelock, 1977). Other trainees are transferred or promoted elsewhere on return home, raising questions about the process of selection and career development. Personnel

mobility and loss is no doubt regretable for the trainees' sponsoring unit, but some observers suggest that it is not too critical a loss in so far as these persons continue to contribute to national development in general (Unesco, Breda, 1980).

Issues such as these were highlighted in the review of ODA's training aid undertaken by its evaluation unit (Cracknell, 1979). This was based on a review of past evaluation studies and the report summarises recommendations for changes in the management and direction of aid. These include that training should be more related to aid projects and that there should be greater assistance to a wider spectrum of training alternatives. Thus in addition to training in Britain or a third country, more attention should be given to in-country training, and to less formal approaches and on-the job training. Consideration should also be given to institutional development, both with respect to personnel and/or capital development.

Institutional building and development is a major feature of many multilateral agency initiatives. A number of reviews of this strategy have recently appeared, as was noted earlier (e.g. World Bank, 1985; Noor, 1985). Concern has been expressed at the limited impact of institutional development which has been attributed to poor co-ordination, lack of financial autonomy, deficient staffing and limitations of mandate and scope. The review of the experiences of the World Bank, ILO and Unesco also suggests that the actual means adopted to effect institutional development appear to be an important determinant of success or failure (World Bank, 1985). Key factors include the extent to which inter-sector co-operation and inter-agency collaboration exist in recipient countries. Commenting on the latter point, the World Bank review observes:

The growing determination to co-ordinate technical assistance is a very recent phenomenon any many past errors in institution building are due to the fact that donors were not prepared, or not able for technical reasons to harmonise their efforts with other donors. (1985, p. 42).

Inter-regional co-operation has also been widely



advocated. It is a major strategy adopted by Unesco's regional offices and appears to have considerable potential for meeting Third World training needs through the provision of a range of intensive courses on specific topics designed for nationals of particular countries or groups of countries in the areas. Likewise, the Commonwealth Secretariat has organised a number of regional courses, seminars and workshops for school administrators, supervisors and inspectors in different parts of the world (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981; 1981a; 1982).

An evaluation of the major UNDP/Unesco Inter-country Asian Project 'Regional Technical Co-operation for Training Educational Personnel in Planning and Management Using Distance Teaching and Other Techniques', found that the project had generally been perceived as being successful by participants at the evaluation workshop. However in terms of the actual project objectives of greater use of distance teaching, it was noted that in many countries in the region, there had been high drop-out rates during correspondence phases, materials had been poor and inadequately distributed, and that contact sessions had been limited or not available (Unesco, Roep, 1983). Successful outcomes were thus more in terms of the catalytic effect of the project, and the benefits for the immediate project participants.

This latter benefit should not be disparaged, but it illustrates a particular problem surrounding the regional or international training strategy. As Udagama observes, commenting on the extensive training organised by many agencies in the form of in-country workshops and seminars in the South Pacific region:

... it is not unknown that the same person attends a variety of seminars, workshop, and training courses in the national and international circuit. It is for some almost a career. (1986, p. 4).

Be that as it may, the arguments for regional co-operation are persuasive, and the strategy goes some way towards meeting the calls for local relevance, the involvement of local practitioners, and the homogeneous grouping of participants with common problems (Unesco,

Roeap, 1979a). Few detailed discussions of the approach have been found in the literature, although a recent contribution to the topic is the as yet unavailable 1987 ULIE thesis by Chizinga. Regional training institutions have had a mixed track record in the past (World Bank, 1985), and recent initiatives such as the plans to establish a Commonwealth Regional Training Programme in the Caribbean (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1982) have been slow to get off the ground.

It may be that less formalised regional arrangements are the most promising option. Thus the co-operative regional project organised by the Commonwealth Secretariat (1986) in conjunction with the Governments of Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zambia on aspects of personnel management has greatly facilitated the exchange of experiences in this area. The project was initiated by the Government of Zambia, and is evidently meeting common needs in Southern Africa. The flexible and varied pattern of operations is providing an incentive for countries to develop their own plans and to come together at workshops to review them and take stock of progress in the improvement of their management procedures.

A further example of somewhat radical strategy of international assistance is the Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) in Zambia (Zambia, 1985). It is a co-operative venture between the two Education Ministries and three Scandinavian development agencies, namely, SIDA, NORAD and FINNIDA. SHAPE is an action plan whose major components are the on-going self-help activities in schools and colleges. The project is seen as a response to local needs, rather than being any 'outsiders' solution, and is an interesting example of a strategy in which donors enable a considerable degree of procedural flexibility with regards to costings and structures.

Lack of procedural flexibility with the disbursement and management of aid is a common criticism of donor policies of international assistance (e.g. Hurst, 1981). However it seems that the lessons from experience of projects such as EWLP (Unesco, UNDP, 1976) is resulting in some attempt to redress this, and to generally improve strategies and tactics of international assistance.

### A Final comment

This section has considered a number of issues surrounding international assistance to educational development and noted that multilateral and bilateral agencies and recipient governments adopt and deploy a wide range of strategies. Each strategy has its advantages and disadvantages and none appear to have considerable merit over another (Noor, 1985). Indeed the review of AID experiences suggests that in most cases factors explaining effectiveness and impact are more frequently a function of conditions internal to the host country rather than a function of AID performance (Warren, 1984).

The factors affecting implementation have been widely discussed. For example Havelock and Huberman's (1977) analysis of the conditions for the effectiveness of technical assistance projects in teacher education highlighted that a project, to be effective: needs to address itself carefully to a clear definition of problems and needs, and be accorded good leadership; needs both harmony and support amongst its participants; and must have necessary resources - ideas, people, money, and technology. This study, as with many other discussions of effective implementation, for example of the exploitation and use of media in education (e.g. Schramm, 1967; Hawkridge, 1982), continually stress the importance of giving particularly detailed attention to contextual and utilisation factors.

In sum, the multi-facted world of international assistance for educational development, provides many insights into the factors which might contribute towards the improvement of educational management training, whether the emphasis be on personnel and institutional development, curriculum and materials development or other components. There is often nothing very suprising about the lessons highlighted in the literature, but as Baum comments in reviewing the World Bank's experience:

We have been struck again and again by how obvious many of them seem to be. They often read like little more than the dictates of commonsense. But to say something is commonsense is obvious does not mean that it is simple.... (1985, p. 573).

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE CASE STUDY OF THE ODA-FUNDED PROJECT

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The chapter describes the case study, the ODA-funded research and materials development project, 'Training Third World Educational Administrators: Methods & Materials'. The project is first summarised at a global level, outlining the aims and objectives, design and methods and outputs. This is followed by a presentation of findings from the research phase, a description of the materials development process, and an outline of activities undertaken at country level.

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#### 3.1. A DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF THE PROJECT

##### 3.1.1 PROJECT INITIATION

###### The researchers

The project was initiated by Dr Paul Hurst of the Department of Education in Developing Countries at the University of London Institute of Education (ULIE) - a major provider of training for overseas educational personnel. He had for some time been concerned with the implementation problems surrounding educational reform in the Third World, and the fact that those with managerial responsibility were untrained or had received limited training. Moreover, his experience of running educational management courses within ULIE, together with observations whilst overseas, indicated that a particular concern was the paucity of materials for use in training Third World educational managers.

In 1981, informal meetings had indicated that the Overseas Development Administration (ODA) was considering research proposals for funding from its 'nominated centres' (see below). Dr Hurst therefore prepared a proposal for research in educational management training. This was first approved by the ULIE research committee, before being submitted to the ODA for consideration. The application was successful, and in May 1982 the writer was appointed by ULIE as Research Officer to the project.

### The sponsors

In the early 1980's the ODA's educational research policy was to commission research projects from institutions which were part of its 'nominated centres' policy. This policy was the ODA's way of helping to ensure that those education departments which were taking the majority of overseas students received adequate resources to enable them to be more efficient and effective in their training. Research grants were thus seen as providing both moral and financial support, and the key concern was to enable activities which would be of use to these institutions, in addition to providing useful information to the ODA. The criteria were thus structural not subject based.

Given the large number of overseas students at ULIE, the department was encouraged to come up with a research proposal. In the event, two were submitted and 'Training Third World Educational Administrators: Methods and Materials' (TIWEAMM), was selected. Research Project R3698 was authorised at an (original) cost of £52,836 over three years from 1 April 1982 to 1 April 1985. It was funded out of the Research and Development subhead of the Overseas Aid vote (it represented 0.5 per cent of this subhead in 1984/85). The project was subsequently extended for a fourth year and the grant terminated on 31st March 1986, the total cost having been approximately £100,000.

### 3.1.2 THE PROJECT

#### Project rationale, aims and objectives

Project documentation can be used to highlight the rationale underlying the project. Firstly, the original submission to the ODA by Dr Hurst in 1981 makes the following point:

According to the 1980 World Bank Education Sector Policy Paper, the quality of management of educational systems in developing countries is a major area of concern. As well as often being unwieldy and inefficient, they suffer from a shortage of appropriately trained personnel. The proposed research aims at uncovering and helping to make some practical steps to alleviate this situation.

This was subsequently elaborated, together with the aims and objectives, in the two page project description prepared on commencement of the project. This read:

Educational administration in developing countries is much in need of qualitative improvement, particularly in the supply of appropriately trained personnel. There is a shortage of suitable training materials for institutions training Third World educational administrators, inadequate knowledge of the needs to which such training should be directed, and of the existing and new training methods which could be employed. There has been very little research in this field and such research into the training of educational administrators as exists has been carried out mainly in the USA and Australia for western trainees. A few institutions have produced some training materials for Third World trainees but these are not based on systematic research, and they are also limited in scope and level.

The project has three aims:

1. To survey in several developing countries the provision of training in educational administration and its quality in relation to the needs for trained administrators.
2. To survey and evaluate the types of training being offered, including some western institutions, particularly the materials and techniques in use.
3. To develop new training materials and techniques together with a guide for trainers.

The project will produce:

1. a final report on the findings of the survey work, the nature of the training materials, and the testing of them.
2. journal articles on specific aspects of the research and development work.
3. a set of training materials
4. a trainers's guide introducing the materials and discussing the use of various training techniques
5. a list of projects in educational administration

In sum, the project originated out of a concern for the lack of useful research in this area and, more specifically, the severe shortage of appropriate materials for use in the training of Third World educational administrators. The major objectives were to undertake survey research into the nature of educational management training provision and to develop materials. The survey findings and materials would be disseminated to institutions invited to participate in the project.

These were the aims and objectives as originally formulated. A discussion of project design, methodology and implementation will throw further light on questions concerning the actual purposes of the survey research and the materials. It will also reveal that there were certain changes in project strategy during the four year period. Most significant were the shifts in the focus of research away from the more general topic of Third World educational management training, towards the transferability of training methodology and materials; and from the dissemination of materials, towards providing prototype materials in support of trainers and to stimulate local materials development.

#### Project design and methodology

The project was originally designed to cover the following programme of work:-

##### Year 1

1. Establish base-line survey in participating countries of supply and demand for administrative training
2. Commence inventory of relevant training institutions, programmes, training materials and techniques.
3. Commence compiling taxonomy of relevant administrative skills and competencies. Search and survey relevant literature.

##### Year 2

1. Complete base-line survey
2. Complete inventory of training institutions and programmes
3. Complete taxonomy of skills and competencies.  
Complete literature survey
4. Begin development of training materials & techniques.

### Year 3

1. Further development and testing of materials and techniques
2. Test materials and techniques in participating countries.
3. Write up: final version of materials; trainer's guide; journal articles; final report

There were some modifications to this schedule as the project evolved. In particular, it became evident that the time allocated for materials development and evaluation was going to be inadequate. A case was therefore put to the ODA, and accepted, that the project's objectives could be better achieved through a year's project extension.

As the above phased programme suggests, the project was designed to progress along a typical research and development pattern. The methodology employed to achieve this included: establishing a network of participating institutions; undertaking a base-line survey and research; field studies; regular information dissemination; materials' evaluation questionnaires and workshops; and project dissemination. These will each be described in turn.

The Network: On commencement of the project, steps were taken by the project director to establish a network of institutions or individuals actively engaged in the training of educational administrators and managers in or for Third World countries. Circular letters were sent to institutions listed in the Commonwealth Directory of Qualifications and Courses in Educational Administration (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1980a) and to individuals in selected agencies (e.g. Unesco) and academic institutions in the UK and North America known to be involved in this field. The project was described and recipients were invited to collaborate in one or other of the following forms:-

1. providing information on training materials and methods currently in use;
2. conducting surveys and evaluation of the demand for and supply of administrative training in selected educational systems;
- 3 field testing of materials and techniques developed by the project.



The circular letter indicated that participating institutions/individuals would receive full copies of the project's products; there was no offer of remuneration for any work which might be undertaken. Stress was laid on the mutual benefits to be gained through participation in an international venture.

Response to the initial approach was encouraging. Most replies welcomed the project and its objectives, and there was only one outright rejection. However, a number of respondents from institutions in Third World countries inquired whether work could be undertaken in a personal capacity, and there was some indication that remuneration of some form was expected, particularly with respect to any survey or field testing activities to be carried out for the project. A few initially positive respondents failed to respond in further stages of the project which could be attributable to the fact that the project was not able to offer fees for local research. Other drop-outs from the network during the four year research period were the result of personnel changes.

There were additions to the network in the early years of the project, and steps were taken throughout, to attempt to bring the project to the attention of potentially interested people worldwide. In the various stages of the project the participating network reached a total of 44 institutions covering twenty two countries (chiefly Commonwealth/English speaking - see Annex 2).

In the event, the major form of collaboration by network participants was the provision of information and feedback, except in those countries which the project team visited. Primarily for logistic reasons, and financial constraints, no participants were invited to undertake the work suggested as items 2 and 3 in the original circular letter, although a number had offered to do so.

Base-line survey and research: The major task in the first phase of the project, was to collect data on present training provision. A questionnaire was distributed to participants (Annex 3) to elicit information on the scope and nature of present provision, views on the potential of the project, and perceived needs in terms of target groups

and topics for materials development. Detailed responses were received from 17 individuals. Draft inventories of training institutions and programmes, and data on training materials used in various overseas institutions were produced.

The second important task was to undertake a review of the relevant literature. The information obtained together with that collected from overseas contacts resulted in the production of a listing of related research and development projects in educational administration, and a draft version of a literature review/bibliography.

Field studies: More detailed information on the training provision in five countries (Kenya, Malaysia, Mauritius, Sri Lanka and India) was obtained through field visits. The choice of these particular countries was determined by the fact that there already existed good institutional or personal links in Kenya, Sri Lanka and Mauritius. In India, it was because a proposal for a visit received a very positive response.

Detailed discussions were held with trainers in the UK involved in the provision of educational management training for Third World students. This included the ODA nominated centres at Moray House and the Universities of Birmingham, Leeds and Bristol, and with Sheffield Polytechnic. When the opportunities arose, there were also discussions with trainers/lecturers from other western institutions.

Information dissemination: At the end of each year a position paper was produced and sent together with copies of draft documents (e.g. project listings, literature review), to all participating individuals. The position paper, in addition to presenting a progress report, provided an overview of the issues thought to be particularly relevant to the development of materials for training Third World educational managers. It was based on the literature review and the information which participants had provided. This paper was presented at the 1984 conference of the Association of Teachers of Overseas Education (ATOE, 1984). In presenting information such as this, the project was attempting to fulfil an important information collection and dissemination function. Moreover, by

providing continual and useful feedback to participants, it hoped to ensure that the flow of data from Third World countries was maintained.

Materials' evaluation questionnaire and workshops: A full description of the materials development and evaluation activities is given below. In sum, the draft materials developed on the basis of survey and field work, were distributed to participating institutions together with an evaluation form (Annex 4). Materials evaluation workshops were run in five countries, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Kenya, Mauritius and Malta. A follow-up impact study was undertaken in Sri Lanka a year after the original workshop.

Project dissemination: Participating institutions were sent copies of the final versions of the training materials and trainers' guides. The project had decided at the outset to leave final decisions about general publication of materials towards completion of the project. Selected publishers were approached, as were the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and the Economic Development Institute of the World Bank, with a view to publication. To date these approaches have not been successful. The materials disseminated to the network were produced by offset photocopying at ULIE. Some of the findings of the research have been written up in journal articles, but no final report of research and evaluation findings was produced.

#### Project outcomes and impact

The final project outputs consisted of the following:

#### Training materials and manuals:

- \* Managing Educational Change: Introduction and Guide  
Units 1-4 Key Issues in Educational Innovation  
Units 5-6 Managing Change in Schools
- \* Educational Administrator Training Methods: A Guide
- \* Analysing the Training Needs of Educational Administrators
- \* Training Educational Administrators - A Guide to the Literature
- \* The Use of Microcomputers in Educational Administration

#### Other documentation

- \* Training Third World Educational Administrators: Methods and Materials - A position paper (The 1984 paper was published in the AIOE conference report)
- \* Interim reports and a final report for the ODA
- \* National and International Research and Development Projects concerned with the Training of Educational Administrators and Related Areas and Issues.
- \* Bibliography of Policy-Related Education Documents in 28 Selected Countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific (This item was the result of an additional component added to the project at the request of the ODA. The document was intended to be principally of benefit to training institutions in the UK)

#### Published articles

- \* Rodwell and Hurst, 'Learning Resources for the Professional Development of Educational Administrators in the Third World' in Marshall and Newton (1986).
- \* Hurst and Rodwell, 'Training for School Management in the Third World - Patterns and Problems of Provision' in Hoyle and McMahon (1986)

A comparison of the above list with the list of page 137 reveals that in terms of anticipated outputs, the project achieved what it set out to. However, the actual nature of these products was somewhat different to that originally intended, and this will be explored further in Chapter Four. At this stage, a few additional points can be made concerning overall outcomes and impact.

Given the multi-fold and long term objectives of the project, it would not have been feasible to attempt any immediate assessment of overall project outcomes within the time scale of the project, and thus no formal project evaluation was undertaken. However as noted earlier, a follow-up impact study was mounted in Sri Lanka. This suggested that the project could be considered to have been reasonably successful when judged against criteria of the extent to which the materials and associated methods were being adopted and/or adapted and had stimulated local initiatives. This study is described in section 3.3.3.

Some indication of the immediate impact of the

materials is evident through the generally positive reception which they have received. The research outcomes are harder to assess, (other than through the materials) but it should be noted that no detailed research findings were written up; this was one project output which was not fully achieved at the time. However, this research thesis itself can be considered a project outcome, particularly in so far as it presents an expanded version of the findings from the literature and a detailed and critical analysis of the project strategy. One further outcome is the proposed ULIE 'Training of Educational Management Trainers' course, which aims to meet a perceived training need in this area. Outcomes are explored further in Chapter Four, and the rest of this chapter presents a more detailed description of the project.

## **3.2 THE PROJECT MATERIALS - DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION**

### **3.2.1 THE RESEARCH PHASE**

#### **Introduction**

A precondition for the success of a project focusing on developing materials for Third World educational management training is to recognise that the answers developed in one educational system need to be carefully reviewed before they are seen as applicable to other contexts. The principle which guided the design of the materials was that the development of methods and materials for educational management training must be considered within the context of a number of broader issues. These include: the nature of the inter-relationship between methods and content, the purpose of training and the feasibility of alternative training strategies, the role of different training agencies, trainee selection and incentives for training, educational administrator personnel policies and the many factors determining the overall nature of the educational system.

Not all of these issues would necessarily be pertinent to the consideration of training development and materials design, but it was felt that an examination of them through the literature and survey research, would provide valuable insights and help guide the projects' materials design activities. These were examined in the research phase of the project, in particular through the review of the literature. Perspectives on these have been presented in Chapter Two (particularly section 2.3). A summary of the responses to the questionnaire to the network participants is given as Annex 5.

It is evident that to date research into the various aspects of educational management training has been fragmented and predominantly western-oriented. There is little literature or material based on relevant Third World experience, although some institutions are now taking steps to redress this situation (see 2.2.3). What research there is suggests that there remain many fundamental questions concerning the design of training/learning experiences, which are insufficiently explored for the present provision to achieve maximum impact.

### Surveying the scope of present training provision

Before embarking on materials development the project also set out to study the scope of present training provision in Third World countries, both through the literature (2.2.2) and through survey research. It is evident that although training opportunities within countries is often limited there is considerable diversity in the range of agencies involved in training educational administrators and in the strategies being employed both within and between countries. There appear to be two main strands of provision, which are sometimes co-ordinated but more frequently fragmented. On the one hand there are one to two year pre-service academically-oriented courses in educational administration being offered at higher educational institutions. On the other hand there are a range of in-service agencies providing short induction, orientation or refresher courses, most frequently mounted under the auspices of the Ministry of Education or through external assistance programmes.

An increasing number of countries are establishing specialised training agencies for the latter purpose. Some are operating effectively, but a number are encountering problems concerning their status, the quality and relevance of courses, the selection of students and accreditation issues, and general resource constraints. This frequently derives from a lack of clear Ministry policy on educational management and administrator training, but there is evidence of a growing commitment to such training and a recognition of the need to co-ordinate and direct training provision and relate it to personnel and recruitment policies. There is also an increasing awareness of the desirability of responding flexibly to a variety of training needs and priorities through an appropriate mix of training provision and strategies.

Given the diversity and fragmentation of present provision in many Third World countries, the project attempted to work with a variety of agencies both pre- and in-service in its field work activities. It also decided that it was important to incorporate flexible approaches in materials development, to facilitate their modification

and/or adoption for a variety of purposes in different contexts.

#### The nature of present training provision

The course information received from Third World training institutions suggests a wide range of course objectives, course content and target groups, from the more general courses in educational management and administration to highly specific courses in project planning and management. The extent to which such provision is meeting trainees' and systems' needs remains unclear, for whilst some institutions have indicated that basic needs analysis and course evaluation is regularly undertaken to ensure that provision meets needs, there is little evidence of this being the type of rigorous in-depth needs analysis or systematic evaluation of present provision necessary for such exercises to be meaningful. It was for this reason that the project decided to prepare a short guide to training needs analysis.

#### Training Methods and Materials

From the information obtained, it seems that there is widespread concern about procedures for improving the quality of educational management training which by its very nature requires careful course design, selection of content and use of appropriate teaching methods to help bridge theory and practice.

Information on the training methods used on courses in the Third World was provided by the network of participants. Most report the use of lectures, discussions, case studies, role playing, simulations, exercises and field work, but experience suggests that on the whole conventional lecture methods still largely predominate in educational administrator training courses worldwide. This is particularly so in the more theoretical knowledge based university courses, while it is in the shorter in-service course and workshop that the participatory methods are more widely adopted.

The use of more innovative (non-lecture) methods and associated materials by trainers appears to be a highly



individual affair, and to conclude that limited use is solely due to the lack of materials is to oversimplify the situation. What may be more significant are cultural factors (e.g. in respect of trainer-trainee relationships) and the lack of expertise and confidence in developing and employing such methods and materials (see 2.3.2). This is very evident from discussion with trainers and observation of courses in both developed and developing countries. Moreover, within training institutions, methods adopted by different trainers vary widely, depending more on their proclivity than materials availability. It is for this reason that it was felt that an important task of the research project was to help encourage and promote the effective use of such methods through the provision of carefully designed materials. In addition, it was decided to produce a guide to training methods.

While recognising that shortage of materials may not be the major reason for the predominance of lecture methods in many courses, it is certainly one reason. Indeed the positive response which the project received suggested that many trainers do find the shortage of appropriate training materials a major constraint. Other than a few notable collections of case studies there appear to be no published and widely distributed material in this field (see 2.2.3). Trainers produce their own materials, if at all, and examples of such internally produced materials indicate the preponderance of readings and course notes based on standard academic texts. There is some in-house production of case studies, but it is evident that the constraints of time, money and trainer expertise militate against this being a very widespread practice (2.3.2).

A few trainers believe that training materials must be produced locally and that materials which draw on experience of other countries are largely irrelevant, some Third World trainers also questioned the desirability of standard packages of training materials, particularly those originating from a western-based research project. It was obvious that no single package could be effective for all countries, and that it was also neither feasible nor desirable to attempt to develop a ready-made package for

immediate implementation in any one country. The project felt that what should be aimed for in the materials design, was the provision of some practical points of departure to enable trainers to draw on international experiences and gain further insights into the possibilities offered by alternative non-lecture based methodologies.

This last point suggests further important materials design questions. Should materials be for the trainer to use on a taught course; or should they be packages indicating to trainers how to execute a particular training task and providing materials for them to do so; or self-instructional materials for use by trainees; or some combination of these modes? Responses from participants suggested that they would be most interested in packaged materials combining trainee and trainer oriented components for use on taught courses. One respondent commented that self-instructional materials may be of limited value on their own as group sessions are necessary for effective study of administration. Self-instruction should be introduced only in addition to regular courses. Furthermore, the necessary infrastructures and motivation may be lacking in some countries and amongst some target groups for self-instruction and/or correspondence materials to be viable. In contrast, another comment was that since there will never be enough developing country training capacity, self-instruction techniques are a priority. It is clear that there can be no either/or strategy.

In the light of these responses, materials design was guided by the following principles. Materials should be:

- \* presented as prototypes for local field testing and adaptation.
- \* a package of learning and training resources, (to provide support for both trainee and trainer), rather than individual items such as case studies.
- \* Flexible, and structured in such a way as to allow the various components making up the package to be selected, modified or supplemented to meet local needs.
- \* reflect current thinking (albeit western) about the most appropriate methodologies for adult learning.

### Training needs - selecting topics for materials development

A key research question was to elicit views from the network as to the target group for materials. Initial project research highlighted that the 'middle-level' administrator group, covering school principals, district education officers and supervisors and inspectors, was most frequently identified as a priority for training. In citing this group references are made to the multiplier effect; the growing numbers of young untrained persons taking on responsibilities for planning, directing and administering educational programmes; the administrative implications of educational reform, innovations and curriculum development; and the increasing autonomy of school principals in some systems. It was also noted that few training opportunities exist for these personnel nationally and internationally; many overseas training programmes until recently, have tended to concentrate on the higher level administrator and planner. It was for these reasons that the project decided to focus its attention on the development of materials for use with this target group.

The next series of research issues concerned the feasibility of identifying requisite skills and knowledge for effective performance of administrative and management tasks. One original project objective was to compile a taxonomy assuming that it would be possible to achieve a worldwide consensus on the range of skills and competencies desirable for different level administrators. However, to devise a realistic basis for such a taxonomy and undertake the necessary comprehensive survey and analysis, would have involved considerably more work than any resulting findings would have seemed to warrant.

A further concern was how any identified skills and knowledge could best be acquired through training. The content debate has focused on the balance between the practical and technical or theoretical and conceptual, and concerns about the theoretical knowledge base. A fundamental question is the relevance of predominantly western theory (2.3.2; 2.4.1). Since selection of methods and materials is closely linked to content decisions, these

issues must be considered in developing training materials.

It was concluded from the literature review, that there was enough evidence to indicate general agreement on the various broad administrative/management skills and competencies needed to undertake school or system tasks, but that knowledge requirements are less clearly universally definable. This was borne out in the survey responses where emphasis was given to technical and human relations skills such as financial management, planning, decision-making, leadership and communication.

The questionnaire also listed what were believed to be six significant problem areas in educational management in Third World countries, and participants were asked to identify which they thought would be useful topics for materials development.

Analysis of the responses suggested a pragmatic approach to materials development. That is, rather than attempt to develop materials which were very specifically skill or task oriented, the project should focus on general problem areas. These would be considered through the materials from either a practical or a theoretical perspective (or both) depending on the topic area in question. The aim would be to provide trainers with a springboard for training in a range of skills as far as they were appropriate or necessary in their contexts.

Responses from participants indicated the following order of interest in the topics listed:

The management of resources

Gathering information and making decisions

Improving school/community links and relations

Implementing educational change in schools

Assessing & improving teachers' classroom performance

Using microcomputers for administrative purposes

The information and feedback received through survey work was carefully considered and used to guide the future strategy for materials development. In the event, it was decided to produce a package of materials on 'Managing Educational Change'. This would enable aspects of the other topic areas to be considered together with certain skills and knowledge areas prioritised by participants.

### 3.2.2 THE MATERIALS - MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

#### The package

The main package of training materials developed by the project was entitled Managing Educational Change (MEC). This topic was one which the majority of network participants had agreed was important (although not necessarily the highest priority). It was chosen in the belief that many of the problems which administrators and managers face are associated with the introduction of changes such as new curricula or different education patterns. It was felt to be appropriate to focus on an examination of the management implications of change and the change process; the materials reflect the view that effective management requires attention to both maintenance and developmental tasks and processes within the context of change.

The overall aim of MEC is to provide a package of print-based prototype materials for a study of the management of educational change and by implication, management within a changing education system, through an examination of the key issues surrounding educational innovation and the analysis of the practical considerations of managing change in schools.

The materials are for use on courses for practising school head teachers, although with modification they could be used on courses for middle-level administrators. The theme 'Managing Educational Change' is covered through a series of six units grouped under two topic headings: Key Issues in Educational Innovation, and Managing Change in Schools. The units are designed in such a way as to provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete one to two day learning experience. Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit. Additional components include overhead projector transparency masters, readings and optional activities. The package is presented in two spiral binders containing the materials for the two topics, together with an introductory booklet. (A fuller description of the materials is given in Annex 6.)

### The materials' philosophy and approach

A summary of the key features of MEC is given in figure 2 below. This is discussed on the subsequent page.

#### Figure 2: A summary of key features of MEC

The module 'Managing Educational Change' is a:-

##### ■ **PROTOTYPE EXEMPLAR MODULE**

which aims to provide:

- a framework to assist trainers in designing a course
- examples of non-didactic training approaches

The materials offer possibilities for:

- Adaptation to local needs
- Modification through partial changes

and could be:

- Supplemented with local materials

A key principle for using the materials is:-

##### ■ **FLEXIBILITY**

Suggesting a range of alternatives including:-

- Use on the cafeteria principle not as a rigid syllabus
- Selection of units and activities to meet local needs
- Integration into existing programmes

The philosophy inherent in the materials is:-

##### ■ **EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING**

Thus training sessions should involve:

- Problem centered learning as against content centered learning
- Activity based discovery learning
- Learner participation in group learning
- Reality oriented and problem-solving exercises
- The trainer acting as a as facilitator

The philosophy underlying the materials is that learning and the transfer of learning to the job, is best achieved through experiential and problem solving approaches. The materials aim to provide opportunities for an analysis of some of the problems and practical realities of educational administration. They suggest a strategy which involves activity-based group and individual learning and subsequent discussion to help participants to discover, learn and apply some general principles and concepts and to develop skills, knowledge and attitudes which will enable them to improve their performance at work.

It was hoped that the materials would encourage a greater utilisation of participative methods and a move away from expositive and didactic strategies which, it is widely felt (see 2.3.2), are not the most appropriate methods of training adults in an in-service situation. Thus whilst elements of theory are implicit in the materials, theoretical perspectives are on the whole confined to the Readings which accompany each Unit. The hope was that theory, where it might be usefully considered, should derive from the work on the activities through trainer facilitated discussions. Moreover, cultural diversity seemed to require that the materials avoid dogma and eschew prescription; it was felt to be important for local trainers to decide the appropriateness and relevance of theoretical perspectives, and where theory is presented, or a suggestion of western bias is evident, these could usefully be subjected to critical analysis in the training situation.

MEC is presented as a framework on which the user can build a training course eliminating some parts and/or integrating additional components where appropriate. The package was designed to be used on the cafeteria principle: it was anticipated that trainers would select units and activities to meet local training needs. Units can be combined in a variety of ways, either to enable a different emphasis within a training programme, or to form the basis for a broader programme when supplemented by additional materials, lecturers from outside, field visits etc... It was also expected that the units themselves would be used flexibly and with local modification and adaptation as

required. Essentially, decisions concerning the selection sequencing and use of units and activities were expected to derive from a careful analysis of training needs, and from trainers adopting a systematic approach to training design.

Some case study material, role plays and simulation exercises were provided in the package. However, ideally such materials need to be developed with a knowledge of the administrative reality of the context in which the materials are to be used and it was suggested therefore, that trainers would need to supplement the materials with more directly relevant local exercises and cases. Similarly, modification of the reading file was suggested, particularly as the package as presented over-emphasised western literature sources. The difficulty here was that the project had limited access to local documentation. The choice therefore, was either to exclude altogether western examples and perspectives on the issues under consideration, or to provide short extracts to highlight possible discussion points and to illustrate the type of readings which might be sought. The latter alternative was selected, and users were thus advised to supplement these with local literature.

### 3.2.3 THE EVALUATION OF THE MATERIALS

#### The evaluation strategy

Two approaches were adopted for materials evaluation:

Postal questionnaire: The draft packages of materials were distributed to the network of participants together with an evaluation guide which drew attention to the sorts of issues on which feedback was desired. These were questions concerning the actual usage of materials (why, when, how, problems etc..); the appropriateness of the materials and the approach which they adopt; their usability, adequacy, quality and practical aspects of use; and an overall assessment of the materials in relation to local needs (a copy of the guide is given as Annex 4).

The total number of responses received was six, all of which were favourable. However (a) it was clear that none of those responding had actually used the materials; and (b) the over-positive comments suggest that the materials may not have been subjected to rigorous and critical scrutiny.



Field trial evaluation: Field trials were mounted in five countries: Thailand, Sri Lanka, Mauritius, Kenya and Malta. The aims were:-

1. To assess the overall usability of the package of materials when given to local trainers for use on mini-courses. Criteria used included: clarity (of package design, of instructions); adaptability (modification and/or use of supplementary local materials); facility (in using package, copying, etc.)
2. To determine the value of the training package in Third World countries. Criteria used included: relevance of objectives; adequacy of coverage; suitability of strategy (content, structure and methods); and general effectiveness in promoting learning.
3. To enable the project to observe the materials in use, make assessments as to their strengths and weaknesses, and identify factors and details in need of improvement.

In addition, there were less explicit aims:-

4. To stimulate the materials development process in participating institutions;
5. To provide trainers with insights into a range of training methodology

The field trials were all somewhat different, both in the way in which they were set up, and in the way they were managed. This will be evident in the country profiles given in section 3.3. In all countries except Malta, a formal mini-course based on a number of units from the package was mounted with a small group of 'guinea pigs'. The duration of the mini-course varied from one to three days. In Mauritius the project research officer acted as trainer, in Thailand, Kenya and Sri Lanka training was undertaken by faculty of the participating institutions. The Malta exercise was handled in a less structured and more ad hoc way by the project director.

### A summary of field trial evaluations

Key features and findings of each field trial are summarised in Figure 3, on the next page. The main findings were:-

- The package of materials presents formidable translation problems and this is likely to mitigate against its more extensive use in countries where English is not the medium of instruction or at least commonly used in higher education.
- Where there may be a mismatch between materials and trainer methods some further support for implementation of innovatory methods/materials is desirable. It may well be that the materials and associated methods are actually unsuitable in certain contexts.
- It is necessary to stress more clearly in the introductory booklet, that the materials are presented as prototypes (rather than prescriptions), and that use thus requires selectivity and local modification.
- The structure of the draft package of materials was thought by many trainers to be too complex and in need of simplification, and the inclusion of suggested timings for activities was unrealistic and unnecessary.
- Individual work on activities and readings was disliked, and thought to be inappropriate in such a short course. The time constraints were very evident
- The desire for more formal lecture inputs, and a general belief in the importance and necessity of imparting knowledge during courses, was evident at a number of the trials.
- Details of misunderstandings, dislike of certain specific activities, wording, etc.

### The field trials and subsequent materials modification

A major purpose of the field trials was formative evaluation, as noted previously. The findings suggested that there were two main courses of action which the project could follow in materials modification; radical revision or minor modification. The first would need a reconsideration

of the overall conceptualisation of the package, the philosophical underpinnings and the structure. The aim might be to produce a simpler version consisting of a less complex structure, and no trainer support element with respect to methods - in effect a basic course syllabus supplemented by lecture handouts. Another radical revision would have been to discard the whole package and embark on producing case studies for example. The major advantage of a radical revision would be that the resulting simplification and more traditional approach might be more immediately accessible to many trainers. The disadvantage was that it would actually have taken a lot longer time than was available. Eliminating the trainer support element, or producing case studies from a western perspective, would have contradicted two tenets arising from the research phase.

The alternative course of action was to confine the materials modification to change of details, taking into account some of the valuable formative data acquired, and paying particular attention to the trainer worksheets. This would not overcome all the reservations made concerning the materials, but would meet the major criticisms of over complexity of structure, and that the materials were too demanding of trainers.

The second modification strategy was chosen, partly because it was believed that as a research and materials development project it was important to be consistent with respect to research findings, partly because it was thought appropriate to be somewhat innovative and to encourage trainers to explore a possibly unfamiliar approach, and partly, it must be acknowledged because of time constraints. But perhaps most significant was the view that no amount of adaptation by the project would make the package suitable for use in all Third World contexts.

Thus the main focus of the changes were to include additional guidelines and re-inforce the trainer element in the materials. It was further decided to revise the structuring of the package to make it less complex and cumbersome, and remove the timing schedule. Modifications were made to certain activities in the light of evident

misunderstandings, and additional discussion points were included. The only major modification in terms of strategy was to reduce the number of suggested individual activities. It was clear in a number of field studies that both trainers and participants disliked this approach (time, and limited participant confidence were two of the reasons given) and frequently chose to adapt such activities for group work.

The 'Introduction and Guide' to the package was re-written to take account of some of the problems and criticisms levelled at the materials, in particular those concerning rigidity and prescriptiveness. Attention was also drawn to the need for trainers to be aware of possible problems in using the materials without adjusting their methods. The point was made in the following paragraph:

We would also strongly advise trainers to carefully consider their own assumptions about learning and training strategies before embarking on using the materials. Field testing has shown that where trainers with a predominantly expositive approach have used these materials without any major modification to their training methods, there is a serious mismatch between methods and materials; training is disorted and confused, resulting in limited impact on participants attending the courses.

In sum, the project started out with the intention of writing fairly simple materials on a variety of basic topics, but from an examination of the literature on educational management training and through feedback and advice from the network of potential users, a more complex and comprehensive approach was adopted focusing on the topic of 'Managing Educational Change' was chosen for materials development. The design adopted assumed a trainee-centered mode of training, and the materials were presented as prototypes for local adaptation. As a result of field trials the materials were somewhat modified and the total package was distributed to all those who had actively participated in the project. It is hoped that they will serve as useful modules for Third World trainers to enable them to arrive at distinctive programmes to meet their special needs in their own contexts.

### 3.3 THE PROJECT - COUNTRY PROFILES

As is evident from the previous sections, project participation in certain countries went beyond collection of data and feedback through postal surveys. Materials evaluation workshops were run in five countries, three of which (Kenya, Sri Lanka and Mauritius) had been the focus of earlier field visits. There was also a follow-up visit to Sri Lanka. Collaboration took different forms, and in order to better understand the nature of the project it is essential to have some notion of how the project functioned in the various countries and in relation to national contexts. Since data was not collected or reported systematically or uniformly, the profiles given below are uneven. The profiles are essentially factual, but include qualitative and subjective observations made at the time.

The section starts with a brief overview of the evaluation of project materials undertaken in Mauritius, Thailand and Malta. The profiles on Kenya and Sri Lanka are presented in more detail. The writer visited each country twice at different phases of the project and the profiles draw on the observations, discussions and findings during these visits. These detailed accounts look at relevant aspects of project implementation under the headings of contextual, operational, curricula, and outcomes.

#### 3.3.1 MATERIALS EVALUATION IN THAILAND, MALTA AND MAURITIUS

##### Thailand

The participating institution in Thailand was IDEA, the Ministry of Education's Institute for the Development of Educational Administrators. This institute was established with World Bank funds, reflecting a recognition of the importance of developing educational management training capability in Thailand. A part of the original loan was allocated for a programme of fellowships and in-country courses for IDEA staff, handled by the British Council. The project had made early contact with IDEA staff during the period of their fellowships in the UK.

The opportunity of trialling the project materials in Thailand arose out of discussions with the North East London Polytechnic consultant who had been asked to run a workshop

on Course Evaluation for IDEA. The project materials evaluation exercise which took place in Thailand in March 1985 was thus mainly opportunistic. The workshop consultant wished to provide IDEA participants with a 'live' course on which to practice evaluation techniques. A mini-course based on two units of the project materials was mounted in Thai and evaluated by IDEA staff. The findings from this evaluation were reported verbally. The project research officer observed the course and carried out informal interviews with those involved. No formal project initiated evaluation was possible during the workshop; indeed the whole nature of the involvement was such that the project adopted a low profile.

It was evident that on the whole the materials were well received by Thai trainers. The most notable feature of this exercise was the way in which certain trainers succeeded in adapting aspects of the material and transforming the mini-course into a uniquely Thai learning experience which gave the impression of being both stimulating and effective. They appeared to be totally at home in adopting the project materials strategy - in this respect the package presented no problems. The major difficulty was that of translating the materials.

Given the resource constraints which pertain at the Institute it is unlikely that the materials will have been translated and used as a basis for further courses. Subsequent contact with IDEA after the workshop was minimal. The reasons for this are not immediately clear, although it is known that NELP encountered similar problems, and that there were some difficulties with respect to the British Council/IDEA contract.

#### Mauritius

The project established close links with the Educational Administration Unit of the Mauritius Institute of Education, which runs in-service courses for school principals and administrators. Collaboration took place during two key project phases; a training needs analysis was undertaken in Mauritius by the project director in 1983, and a materials evaluation exercise was mounted by the research

officer in 1985. During project visits, some links were established with Ministry officials, but the collaboration was mainly on a personal and institutional basis.

The materials evaluation exercise was planned in consultation with the head of the Unit. Since there was no group of trainers with whom to work at the Institute, the project research officer was responsible for preparing, running and evaluating a mini-course based on two units of the package. This provided a useful 'control' as there was no question of there being a wide variety of intervening 'trainer variables'. It did however make any overall evaluation exercise difficult. The three day mini-course was run with a group of secondary school principals who were taking the two year part-time INSET course in educational administration which the Institute mounts.

Evaluation findings suggest that the course was found to be useful, relevant, somewhat novel and enjoyable. Individual activities were disliked and participants felt that not enough time was allocated to group activities and detailed discussion of topics and issues.

#### Malta

Collaboration with the University of Malta arose during the latter stages of the project and as a result of discussions with the Head of the Department of Educational Administration who was concerned with improving the quality of in-service courses run for the Ministry of Education. The workshop was organised by the University and the Ministry in February 1986, and observed by the project director. It was attended by 30 principals of secondary schools. Two senior administrators from the Ministry and two lecturers from the University attended as group leaders. The participants spent five days in working through the materials of Unit 5 in groups, with plenary round-up sessions each day. The groups very quickly became immersed in the analysis of educational problems and reforms in Malta, as the materials prompted, to the extent that they were not heavily dependent on the materials or particularly interested in a detailed evaluation of them. They wanted formal lecture inputs from the visiting 'specialist'.

### 3.3.2 THE PROJECT IN KENYA

#### Contextual

National policy on and commitment to educational management training in Kenya is reflected in the Kenya Education Staff Institute. KESI was established in 1981 by the Ministry of Higher Education with World Bank funding. The aims of KESI are to improve the efficiency of educational administration in Kenya, through the preparation of course content and relevant materials, the organisation of in-service field courses and course evaluation. The staff initially appointed to work at KESI underwent a training programme at the University of Leeds. To date the Institute has had a chequered development, not the least being that it has had five different directors, and numerous changes in personnel.

Other agencies and institutions in Kenya are also involved in educational management and administration training. A major provider at the pre-service level is Kenyatta University (KU). The links between KESI and KU are undefined and problematic. The KESI facility is now sited on the KU campus, although continuing to be responsible to the Ministry of Education; KU believed that a staff institute should have been established under their auspices.

British educational aid for educational management development has included a number of British Council Education Seminars being mounted for school heads through local education authorities. A major thrust of the ODA aid to educational administration has been with the use of IC training awards for school inspectors attending courses in the UK. In addition two KESI staff were sponsored for UK training, the intention was that they attend the new ULIE course for educational management trainers, but when this was postponed, they attended an alternative course on curriculum planning. A further focus of bilateral aid in this area is the ULIE/KU link (discussed below).

Prior to its first exploratory visit, the project established contact with the ODA Education Adviser with responsibility for Kenya, and with the British Council office in Nairobi. The level of interest and practical assistance from the Nairobi office was small; they wished to



keep a low profile "due to pressures of work" (Deputy Representative to Project R.O., November, 1982).

### Operational

The project, in seeking a collaborator in Kenya, approached Kenyatta University College, as it was named until 1985. There were two reasons for this, firstly, when the project commenced KESI was in its early stage of development and the project staff did not know of its existence. Secondly, it was natural to exploit the close ODA supported links and personal contacts which existed between the project home base at ULIE and Kenyatta University College. The Chairman of the Department of Educational Administration, Planning and Curriculum Development at KUC, responded very positively to the initial letter inviting participation in the Project.

Despite the problems which KU has faced over the past years, with its temporary closures and uncertainties, their involvement and co-operation was sustained throughout the four years of the project, and in particular during the two project visits undertaken by the research officer. There were also a number of incidental contacts through international conferences, and visits by the project director to Kenya unrelated to the project.

The first project visit to Kenya was undertaken by the research officer in 1983 with the aims of gaining an overview of educational administrator training provision. The second visit to mount a materials evaluation workshop took place in 1985. A few of the salient features of these visits, with respect to operational aspects of the project in Kenya, will be given here.

The exploratory study - January, 1983: In advance of the first visit a proposed programme was drawn up, and letters seeking appointment and clearance were sent to the Ministry of Basic Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Despite KU support and the considerable joint efforts made on arrival, it proved impossible to arrange any meetings with officials at the Ministry of Basic Education or obtain their clearance for field visits. There was more success with the Ministry of Higher Education, and with the

help of the Assistant Director (a British OSAS - Overseas Service Aid Scheme - Officer), a full programme of meetings with officials at headquarters and in the field was set up. It was apparent that the project found itself caught up in some internal politics and conflicts between KU and the Ministry; higher education institutions were under a cloud because of supposed involvements in the attempted coup in August 1982.

The general response to the project amongst officials in the Ministries was not encouraging. Whilst it was agreed that educational management training materials were needed, the idea that a London based project could produce materials to meet these needs met with considerable scepticism. This criticism of the project's aims and assumptions was also articulated within the wider context of overall antipathy to UK initiatives in general and UK based training provision in general. These responses could be interpreted in socio-political terms, with respect to Kenyan attitudes towards aid, dependency and the whole question of transfer of western models and values (see for example 2.4.2; 2.4.3). There is also an additional issue, which should not be overlooked, namely that some responses may have been influenced (displaced) by male chauvinistic attitudes towards a female research officer.

In marked contrast to the 'official' lukewarm responses, the KU collaborator maintained a positive attitude to the project. This may partly be attributed to the fact that in addition to a genuine concern for educational management improvement, there might also be a degree of self interest. With the development of KESI as the apex in-service training institute based at the KU campus, there was a need to confirm KU's role as a pre-service provider, and explore means of bridging the gaps between the two. Project initiatives might have been perceived as offering possibilities for helping to enable this.

A number of alternative plans were drawn up for future project collaboration in Kenya in the light of local needs and perceptions about educational administrator and management training. This included a workshop strategy. The resource implications of this were not fully explored at the

time, but the tentative suggestion was to exploit the KU-ULIE link in some way and/or tap the ODA 'Education Projects' Fund (administered through the British Council office in-country). The key problem with any workshop strategy was the question of who would meet the local costs of bringing participants together. ODA/British Council technical assistance money can not be used for this purpose, and this was also thought to be the case with the project's research funds (It is now realised that this was a self-imposed constraint, as is discussed in section 4.2.3).

In the event, no progress was made in pursuing the original proposal for a workshop. Major reasons for this were the question of funding, institutional difficulties at KU, the illness of the key Kenyan contact, and the low priority accorded the project by the British Council in-country.

The evaluation workshop - Dec. 1985: The possibility of a materials evaluation workshop being mounted in Kenya was re-introduced during discussions with the KU collaborator during a visit to Kenya by the project director in June 1985. A key difference between this plan and earlier discussions was that the workshop would be jointly sponsored by KU and ULIE; the significant feature in this was that it would be perceived or at least presented as institutional collaboration between ULIE and KU rather than specifically between the project itself and KU. There were also possible status and political implications involved as the project director was by then chairperson of the ULIE department and potentially influential in respect of the ULIE/KU link.

The workshop proposal was drawn up and costed and presented to the ODA for additional funding. This was couched in terms of contributions to the ULIE/KU link as well as to better achieving project objectives, and the matching funding (of local costs) by KU was stressed. The additional funding was approved and KU agreed to match it. The workshop was designed by the research officer in consultation with KU; participation by both members of the project team was anticipated.

The workshop was originally designed as a complete exercise: the identification of needs, materials evaluation,

modification and development and staff development. In the event there were major modifications to this due to public holidays, presidential openings at the University and the non availability of certain KU faculty on days when they had been requested to participate in the joint enterprise.

These unforeseen events meant that the staff development and materials development elements of the workshop virtually disappeared and the main emphasis was on the evaluation of the project materials 'Managing Educational Change' through a three day mini-course. This event was held at a local hotel, the argument for this being that such an incentive (a different location and food) was desirable to ensure maximum participation.

Meetings were held between the co-ordinators, trainers and evaluators prior to the workshop to finalise the workshop design. The trainers were asked to prepare and mount a three day mini-course which would be evaluated by the two local evaluators, a lecturer from KU faculty and a curriculum evaluation specialist from the Kenya Institute of Education. The evaluation team were asked to evaluate materials in terms of their suitability and relevance to Kenya's needs. They prepared evaluation instruments which included questionnaires for trainers and participants, pre and post tests, and an observation instrument.

At the first meeting it was evident that those involved in the workshop did not fully understand its objectives, the purpose of the mini-course or of the materials themselves. Due to pressures of work, there had been minimal briefing by the KU organiser prior to the research officer's arrival. This was not fully appreciated, and not enough time was given to clarifying these questions and eliminating confused expectations on arrival. Not the least were questions concerning incentive payments for the trainers and evaluators for participating in the workshop.

A view expressed was that 'work' was being requested of Kenyans for assisting in trialling materials which would subsequently be published with financial benefit accruing to the authors. There was minimal perception of 'mutual benefit' or of the activity being 'staff development'. KU staff work under considerable pressures with large classes

and low salaries; as an alternative to involvement in the workshop they could have been earning additional money through marking exams. Low commitment to the event was understandable. Similar questions of payment were apparently raised by the 'guinea pig' participants (KU Master's students in educational administration) with the KU staff. Moreover some participants were at first expecting lectures from a 'western expert', and were unclear about their role or the research officer's. It required some delicate negotiation by the two organisers to clarify and defuse the situation.

### Curricular

The evaluation planned and undertaken by the Kenyans was very comprehensive. Unfortunately, the evaluation findings were only partially reported at the time, and the detailed report was not made available until after the project had finished. However, from the verbal summary it was evident that overall the evaluation team felt that the mini-course was successful; participants were fully involved and believed it to be a valuable learning experience. Criticisms of the materials were that they were too programmed, and that the strategy gives too much emphasis to trainee input as against trainer input. Encouraging trainee participation is of course a major purpose of the materials.

Some trainers encountered grave difficulties in utilising materials which incorporated an approach which they were not used to using. The most notable feature of the mini-courses was the very poor facilitation of group work. Although participants evidently enjoyed having an opportunity to engage in long and often meandering discussions, the extent to which actual learning objectives were achieved was open to doubt. The KU trainers found it hard to accept (from the evaluation team), this criticism of their methodology, and to appreciate that the group work and report back sessions had been less than successful.

In sum, the materials were welcomed by KU, but all agreed that there was a need for supplementary local materials and that the MEC materials should be used and

integrated into a longer workshop which included field visits, project work etc. The mini-course provided a valuable start and was perceived as a useful stimulus for developing future workshops in this area. Major problems were trainer inexperience, the shortage of time and the fact that the group of 'guinea pigs' were not practising educational administrators.

The question which also arises is the extent to which the materials which the project developed actually met needs identified and expressed during the exploratory visit carried out two years previously in Kenya. In the absence of any earlier systematic training needs analysis this is hard to assess, but the materials were targeted for school heads and this did reflect earlier findings, as did the materials' emphasis on the practical aspects of educational administration in schools.

#### Outcomes

The project activity in Kenya was less than wholly successful, when judged in terms of the actual achievement of intended outcomes. With respect to the actual trialling of materials, the workshop was of marginal value, except in so far as it confirmed 'findings' about the project materials derived from earlier activities in other countries. Partly this was because of incorrect targeting, and partly because taking place as it did only four months before project conclusion and with the non-appearance of the evaluation report until many months later, it was hardly the formative evaluation exercise it was intended to be. Modifications to the workshop design also meant that the objective of materials (and staff) development could not be met. It can only be hoped that there was some longer term project impact in terms of stimulating materials development and improving trainer methodology at KU.

A final observation is that since the key educational management training institution is KESI, it might be that the projects' efforts with KU were in any event misplaced. (The workshop design had included KESI participation, and the local organiser had approached the Ministry inviting a representative from KESI, but no one came.)

### 3.3.3 THE PROJECT IN SRI LANKA

#### Contextual

Sri Lanka is giving considerable attention to the reform and upgrading of educational management, and has made a serious effort to establish a training institute of good quality. The Staff College for Educational Administration (SCEA) is quite a recent development, and after a few earlier problems, it has re-located, extended and developed its training provision both at headquarters and at regional centres. Almost all the faculty have attended a course in educational management of some sort or another; a number have spent periods studying overseas. Thus the SCEA Director undertook a year's ODA/IC funded training attachment at Sheffield Polytechnic. It is apparent that key Ministry officials see the SCEA as performing an important role as management training providers in the country. However, the SCEA is under-resourced and over stretched in terms of the numbers of courses it provides.

There has been a notable involvement by multilateral and bilateral agencies with SCEA, particularly in the form of Unesco-supported national training workshops in Sri Lanka, and the attendance of SCEA staff at regional workshops in the area. The British aid programme has also supported certain initiatives at the College including a British Council Specialist Tour visit by the project director in September 1984 to assess and assist SCEA development. The ODA is currently funding a ICO at the SCEA for an initial period of two years, and there are on-going discussions between the Ministry, the British Council and the ULIE about the possibility of establishing an institutional link.

#### Operational

In the early stages of the project, correspondence was exchanged with persons in charge of educational management training in the Ministry. Personnel changes resulted in the loss of contact, and this was re-established as a result of the project director's visit. The recommendations from this specialist tour included the suggestion that the Ministry of Education request assistance from ODA through the British

Council to mount a training materials development workshop as an Education Seminar as a collaborative effort by the SCEA and the project. The project had also decided to seek ODA funding to invite trainers from several neighbouring countries, believing that it would be valuable to extend the workshop to become an international gathering. This idea was very well received by the Sri Lankans, who were naturally rather disappointed when the response from the ODA was negative.

The materials evaluation workshop - April 1985: The opportunity to evaluate the project materials rested on the Sri Lankan decision to pursue the idea of the Education Seminar. Although this took time to come through, and was eventually expedited by the British Council in Colombo, contact was made with the Director of the Staff College who was at that time studying at Sheffield Polytechnic. It was thus possible to some extent to jointly plan and design the workshop.

As an Education Seminar, all the local participant costs were met by the Ministry of Education, and the costs for the visit of the two project members by the British Council. The actual cost to the project budget was marginal and primarily involved the expense of advance materials duplication.

The aims of the two week workshop were: the evaluation, adaptation and development of materials on managing educational change, and the consideration of methodologies for training educational administrators and associated materials needs in order to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College. The opening ceremony was attended by the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education and the Deputy Representative of the British Council.

All SCEA staff were involved in the workshop either as trainers or evaluators of mini-courses based on two MEC units run with a target group of secondary school principals, or in the assessment of the four remaining units making up the package. They were involved in a considerable amount of extra work, and actually lost a day of the weekend without recompense. The project staff were unaware of this;



they were also unaware until much later that the question of incentive payments had been raised with the British Council.

The workshop was successful in terms of degree of participation and commitment by local trainers, the time allocated to the event, and the opportunity it provided for the collection of detailed outcomes. (The full report of this workshop is presented as Annex 7.)

The follow-up study - February 1986: A follow-up study was undertaken at the Staff College a year later in order to attempt some overall assessment of the workshop and project impact. The operational features of note were that the visit was undertaken at the initiative of the research officer; project evaluation had not been included in the original or amended project design. It was fortunate that the project budget could fully accommodate this additional feature and that there was no question of conflicting project priorities.

The study would not have taken place without the assistance of the British Council Deputy Representative in seeking and obtaining the necessary Ministry of Education approval for the study. The SCEA Director and staff fully co-operated in the study, presumably at the request of the Ministry; they had nothing to gain immediately from the study, although Ministry officials may have. At a subsequent meeting with the Additional Secretary considerable attention was given by him to eliciting information on staff concerns and problems. The study is discussed in more detail under outcomes below.

### Curricular

The findings from the materials evaluation workshop indicated that there was general agreement that the materials with some adaptation and modification were relevant and valuable for use in the Sri Lankan context, and could be exploited to form the basis of a mini-course or extended for use on a longer course. The topic was felt to be relevant to Sri Lanka, given the current reforms which stress the role of the principal as a change agent.

Overall the mini-courses were perceived to be successful, effective and enjoyable. The trainees appeared

to like the materials and the approaches inherent in them very much, they were satisfied with the experience and believed that they had learnt something during the one and a half days.

The materials were on the whole used as presented. Trainers followed the structure and sequence of content, with some selection of questions and reference to local contextual factors and issues. The approach adopted in the materials (learning through an analysis of problems) was felt by the trainers to be very effective, and the strategy of encouraging active learner participation was thought appropriate. However some of the trainers had difficulty in effectively adopting the approach - it would seem that trainers familiar with a predominantly expositive training strategy (giving lectures), may well encounter difficulties when required to adopt a more discovery oriented approach, as is the case with the project materials. Without some training and familiarisation with new methods and materials, it may well be that they are unable to make the necessary adjustment in their method.

The trainer education element in the materials was thought to be very helpful. However, some felt that the instructions given were too restrictive/prescriptive and that trainers lacking experience might follow instructions too closely without adopting and modifying the materials to local needs.

At the workshop, the materials evaluation was followed by a short materials development phase. The SCEA staff embarked on the development of local materials, in part stimulated by the theme and methodology of the MEC package, and in the context of the institute's curriculum development needs.

#### Outcomes: the follow-up study

The purpose of this follow-up study, was to attempt to assess the impact of the Workshop described above, a year after it had taken place. The specific objectives of the summative evaluation study were as follows.

1. To assess the impact of the project materials and the extent to which (a) they have been utilised in whole or in part in subsequent SCEA programmes; and (b) the training methodology inherent in the materials has been adopted by the trainers who were involved in trialling them;
2. To examine the effect of the workshop on the SCEA materials development process and see how the outline materials developed by SCEA staff during the workshop have been further developed, utilised and evaluated;
3. To gain an overall impression from the SCEA staff involved in the workshop of the value of the exercise and the project materials and thus attempt some judgement of the extent to which the project objectives have been achieved in Sri Lanka.

The evaluation was based on the use of questionnaires and structured interviews with SCEA staff who had been involved in the April 1985 Workshop. Of the 15 original participants, 10 faculty members and the Director co-operated in the follow-up study. In addition some observations were made of on-going courses at the College and discussions were held with the Additional Secretary, Ministry of Education and the Director of SLIDA (the Sri Lankan Institute of Development Administration), whose faculty provide occasional inputs on SCEA courses.

Mounting an ex-post facto evaluation of this nature is bound to be inconclusive. The Staff College has been the focus of a number of external initiatives other than the project workshop and, as an organisation, is continually evolving, with staff returning from overseas training and new policies and practices being implemented. Attributing any major changes which have occurred during the past year to project influences is unrealistic - all that this study could hope to discover was individual faculty members' perceptions of influence. This data itself is also unreliable, given the prevailing cultural norms towards politeness. Despite this, and just because there were some quite distinct reservations in the comments about the workshop, the findings presented below do, it is believed, represent a fairly useful assessment of project impact.

Summary of findings: Copies of the interview schedule and the questionnaire with summated data from ten respondents are given in Annex B. The findings will be discussed under the four criteria for assessing the impact of the Workshop.

1. subsequent modification and use of the package of project materials
2. materials development activities at the Staff College
3. use of methods inherent in the project materials
4. participants' perceptions of overall impact of the workshop

#### 1. Modification and use of project materials

Interview responses indicate that over two thirds of the group felt that the materials as a whole provided a useful model which with some adaptation and modification could be used by SCEA. However, no use has been made of the package as a basis for training courses. A number of people made the point that (a) the materials need modification but that there is no time for modification; and (b) SCEA courses are so over-loaded that they can not allocate much time to the consideration of change management. The package is thus seen as being more appropriate for a longer course, and given present SCEA schedules, it is not as it stands very useful. This may possibly change with the planned introduction of a year long full time diploma course.

The majority of the faculty said that they have spent further time examining the package of materials, in part if not in whole - i.e. those materials which they were actually given during the Workshop. It is evident that a number of activities (e.g. time management) have been adapted for use with the Sri Lankan target group. A number of staff brought along examples of their own materials and also some of the project materials to the interview. Two staff said that they had not looked at the project materials again.

#### 2. Materials development at SCEA

Stimulating SCEA materials development activities was a major objective of the workshop. The third phase of the workshop involved the preparation of outlines for five

modules. These, it was hoped, would be further developed subsequent to the workshop. In the month immediately following the workshop some additional work was undertaken on finalising the outlines and preparing example components. No further attention was given to these draft modules until just prior to the follow-up study when they were typed out and duplicated. They had not been distributed; those involved only saw the materials for which they had 'been responsible', when they were showed a copy during their interview with the research officer.

The lack of commitment to these materials is disappointing. They were obviously given low priority by the Director and his staff. Part of the problem was that at the workshop a number of staff found themselves allocated to work on topics not of their choice. More problematic is that with the general re-organisation of courses which has taken place at SCEA in the last year, some staff have been allocated to teach 'topics' which they hadn't previously covered. In the absence of any dissemination of information about other faculty members materials, there is a danger of wasted effort. In theory staff are involved in preparing materials for their teaching responsibilities, but in practice very little is produced. Commitment to materials development is further hampered by the limited support given to this activity within the College; the Director believes that there is no shortage of materials, although many staff believe otherwise.

Most faculty do however claim to have spent more time developing activity and exercise sheets; a few claim to have developed and used case studies and role plays. The former is felt to be directly attributable to the influence of the Workshop. Some examples were shown, but since they were in Sinhala it is difficult to comment on them.

The major materials development activity at SCEA during the past year has been the preparation of distance teaching materials, with Unesco support. Thirteen of the original DT modules were revised and seven new modules prepared. These are in Sinhala, but examples were shown and a rough description of the treatment adopted was given. They appear to be better structured than previous SCEA

modular materials, and apparently include exercises and reading files. The latter is attributed by the SCEA director to the workshop influence.

The other major materials project is the preparation of Digests - i.e. collections of readings. These are translations into Sinhala of Open University text material. This activity has certainly involved considerable effort and expense (copyright fee), and there was some indication that not all staff felt that it was justifiable and believe that more attention should be given to developing local materials.

### 3. Use of methods inherent in the project materials

Interview responses suggested that staff felt that the methods inherent in the project materials have influenced their approach to training, particularly in encouraging them to think along new lines. This aspect: 'insight', 'new thinking' etc. came through in all the interviews. Some faculty believed that there had been noticeable changes in methods used by trainers during the past year and a greater awareness of/discussion of methodology at the College.

Recognition of the limitations of a predominantly lecture-based approach and the need to adopt andragogical approaches is revealed in the questionnaire responses. Most faculty feel that their client group react positively to more participatory methodology and that learning is promoted with theory being made more relevant and understandable. There are however many factors militating against wider use, in particular:-

- the over-loaded curriculum; non-lecture methods take up too much time during the course;
- facilities are inappropriate (e.g. room arrangements and numbers involved);
- lack of time for preparation, limited support and co-ordination;
- the tendency towards individual trainer inputs;
- and the lack of encouragement for adopting innovative methods.

More generally it was felt that the paucity of evaluation procedures to provide information on programme defects, lack of research data of method effectiveness,

shortage of materials, and limited staff development activities discourage the effective use of more diverse methods at the Staff College.

#### 4. Perceptions of overall workshop impact

The workshop was rated as having been of considerable use by more than half of the participants (there was one outright dissent) and moderately effective and successful. SCEA faculty felt that the most memorable features of the workshop were the actual preparation and running of the mini-courses based on project materials and the exposure to group activity methods.

Major shortcomings were the overall time constraints, especially for the materials development phase. Two thirds of the group felt that the workshop had encouraged them to a great extent to think about their own training methods and given them confidence to try out new methods. In terms of improving their skills as trainers, half the group said that this had been achieved to a great extent, but less than half felt this had been the case with respect to materials writing skills. Three members of staff felt that the Workshop objective of stimulating materials development at the College had been achieved to a great extent, and seven said to some extent. However, when asked to state their extent of agreement with the statement "the use of the project materials and the subsequent discussion of them helped to stimulate materials development at SCEA", half strongly agreed, three tended to agree and two were uncertain.

Perceptions of lasting value/longer term impact for SCEA in general were mainly seen as being moderate, although a few felt it was considerable. Influence on themselves as trainers were said to be moderate, examples of this influence included:

- greater use of group activity methods
- including more activities in distance teaching materials
- use of team teaching on SCEA courses
- developing exercises, incidents and case studies for use on courses

Overall conclusions: On the basis of the evidence obtained through questionnaires and interviews, however unreliable, it seems that the workshop did indeed have some impact at the Staff College. It would have had greater impact had there not been serious time constraints particularly in materials development phase. The brief materials writing activity generated limited enthusiasm and as a result staff lacked any commitment to follow the work through. Lack of progress must also be attributed to limited institutional support.

Certain features of the project materials have evidently been incorporated into the modular distance teaching materials and into the individual efforts of faculty members as materials writers and trainers, particularly the structuring with group activities and reading files. The criticisms which the project team encountered during the previous year - that the materials were too prescriptive and lacked local examples - were not re-iterated by faculty members, although the Director again made this point. Certainly the impression received from most of the staff was that they had reflected on the workshop.

However, it was evident that the SCEA faces a number of major problems, including: the over-crowded curriculum; the emphasis on quantity rather than quality; the lack of clear leadership with respect to materials and methods development; lack of encouragement for innovation; and a generally poor organisational climate. Individual efforts get little recognition, there are no mechanisms for sharing/exchange of ideas and experiences; and work is done predominantly on an individualistic basis with little attempt to define a coherent course philosophy/strategy. It may be that recent changes which have taken place at SCEA - it has been placed under the umbrella of new National Institute of Education, and will be offering a diploma course - will have helped alleviate certain constraints.

Clearly issues such as these have implications for any materials development strategy for Sri Lanka or elsewhere. These will be examined further, together with other implications deriving from the project activities, in the analysis of the case study in the next chapter.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

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The chapter analyses the project utilising frameworks derived from systems thinking and theories of change. These analytical approaches are considered first, followed by the analysis of project aims, assumptions, processes and outcomes. The various threads are finally drawn together in a critical examination of the overall project strategy, which identifies the major issues surrounding project formulation, design and implementation.

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#### 4.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

##### 4.1.1 ALTERNATIVE PERSPECTIVES AND MODELS

The focus of the thesis is strategies of international assistance to Third World educational management training. Chapter Three presented a case study of one such strategy, 'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials' (TTWEAMM), giving a straightforward account of what happened at both a global and country level.

It is axiomatic, that a project such as TTWEAMM is a complex undertaking involving a variety of phenomena. In order to analyse this case study more fully, it is desirable to utilise some form of systematic framework. This will help in clarifying and exploring the critical dimensions and processes involved. Such a tool will also facilitate a more critical examination of the overall project strategy. The purpose of the analysis is to identify the key lessons that emerge from the case study in order that these can be synthesised with those derived from related studies to draw conclusions on the research question, namely:-

What factors need to be taken into consideration by the various persons concerned, at international, national and local level, in making strategic decisions on assistance to Third World educational management training?

There are a range of theoretical perspectives which might contribute towards understanding the issues involved in the topic of study, and assist in addressing the research question. The possibilities could include the following theories and associated concepts:-

- Theories of change, to contribute towards understanding the nature of change and the processes involved in implementing an innovatory project.
- Systems theory, to help focus in a logical and systematic way on the various systems involved and their interactions.
- Dependency theory, to highlight the socio-cultural and political-economic dimensions involved in international assistance projects.
- Psychology, particularly cross-cultural psychology, to clarify issues surrounding training/learning interventions.
- Sociology and phenomenology, to explore the relationships involved and to consider the differing perceptions, concerns and interpretations of key persons/groups.

Any attempt to analyse the case study from such a variety of perspectives would introduce too many factors for consideration and render the study unnecessarily complex and unwieldy. The theoretical viewpoints which seem most relevant to the analysis of the case study material and to the subsequent examination of strategies of international assistance to Third World educational management training are those seeking to explain the nature of change and change processes. Moreover, a number of models, in conceptualising the educational change process, adopt systems approaches which concern themselves with examining the sequential nature of educational projects' design (focusing on objectives, inputs, processes and outputs), and also take into account individual's perceptions, motives and actions.

Perspectives such as these seemed to offer potentially valuable frames of reference. A number of models will be briefly described, before presenting and explaining the derivative model which will be used in analysing the case study.

In one of the most detailed examinations of educational innovation in developing countries, Havelock and Huberman (1977), adopt a systems model. Having explored the nature of social systems in terms of dynamic processes and critical periods in system development, an analogy is drawn with equilibrium processes in biological systems. The biological systems model is composed of two entities, the 'system' and the 'environment' and three processes which relate the two; 'input', 'throughput' and 'output'. This model, they suggest, has proved a convenient way to analyse what is going on in very complicated situations, and they use it to classify and explain many of the aspects of the innovation process, as revealed through case study material.

The model presented by Adams and Cohen (1981), derives from an analysis of case studies of educational innovation in seven countries. They draw attention to the fact that innovation, like a living being, evolves not as a closed system but as a sub-system subject to the influences of its socio-political environment. The process of innovation is considered as a series of stages. These are problem identification, specification of solutions, initial use/trial, implementation/diffusion, and consolidation/rejection. The conceptual framework which is developed highlights that there are a number of major components on which decisions have to be made at each stage of the process of innovation. These concern: personnel, task, method, equipment, plant, cost, impinging contexts, time, scheduling, rationale, and evaluation.

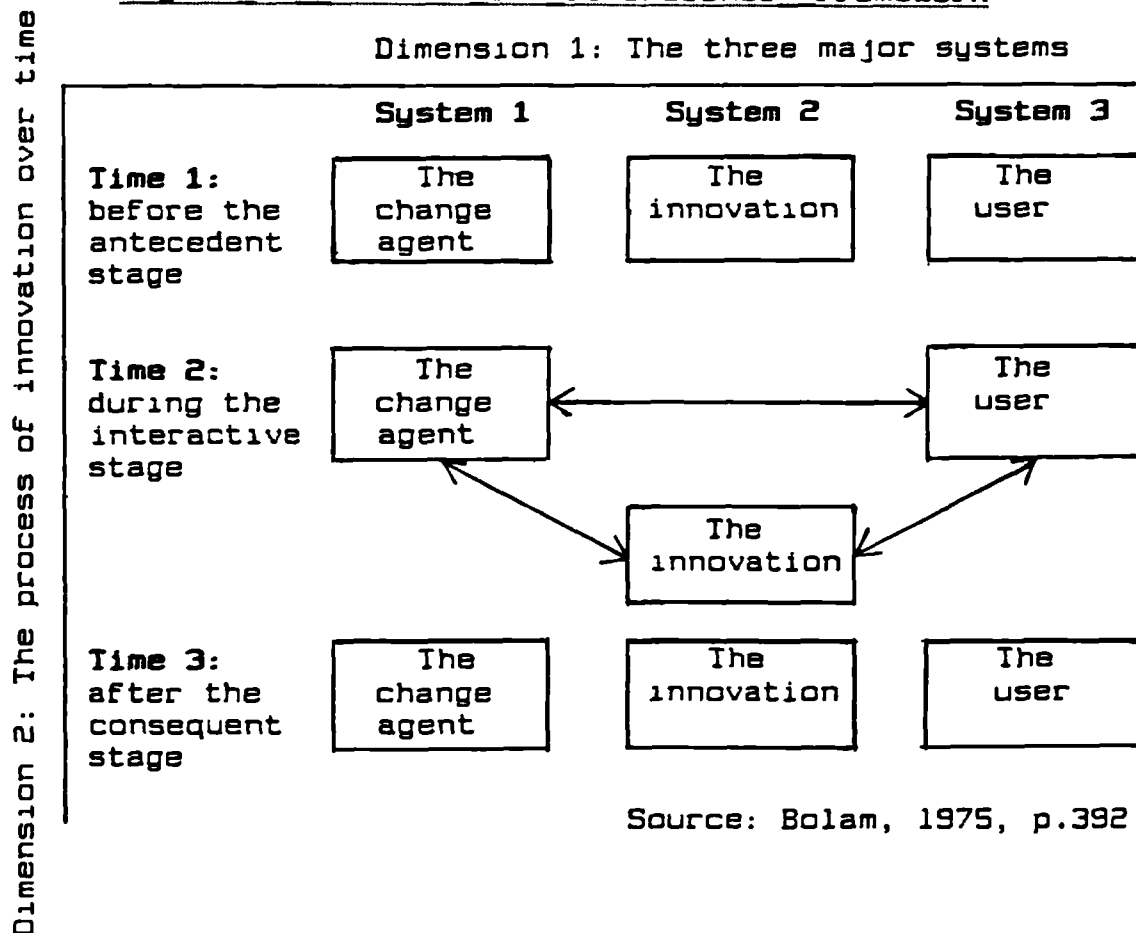
Dalin (1978) develops a theory of educational change which emphasises that in order to understand the dynamics of change as a wider process of on-going social transformation, the characteristics of four basic factors and their associated dimensions need to be taken into consideration. These factors are the educational setting (e.g. decision making, school climate), the environment (parental expectations, the economy...) the innovation (type of change, degree of complexity ...), and the change strategy (degree of participation, type of change model). This provides a diagnostic tool which helps the identification of critical dimensions, relations and processes, and the

complex interplay of forces at work in the process of educational change.

The model presented by Bolam (1975) sets out to provide an organising framework for the extensive literature on innovation, organisation theory, systems theory and other diverse fields. He distinguishes four major factors in any innovation process: the change agent, the innovation, the user system and the process of innovation over time. These are presented as a two-dimensional framework made up of the dimension of 'process of innovation over time' (before, during, after) and the dimension of the three major systems. The interactions of the four factors are presented schematically as shown in Figure 4 . The model generates four sets of questions about the change agent, the innovation and the user systems:-

1. What are their significant characteristics with respect to any particular innovation process?
2. What were they like before the process began?
3. What happened when they interacted with each other during the process?
4. What were they like at the end of the process?

Figure 4. Bolam's two dimensional framework



There are many overlapping ideas in all these models, and a key theme is that change is a process taking place over time and involving a wide range of interacting variables. To understand and successfully implement change therefore requires a very careful appraisal of the major system parameters and attention to many questions concerning the critical factors involved in the process. The various analytical models purport to assist in identifying these critical factors.

#### 5.2.2 A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING THE CASE STUDY

##### The proposed framework

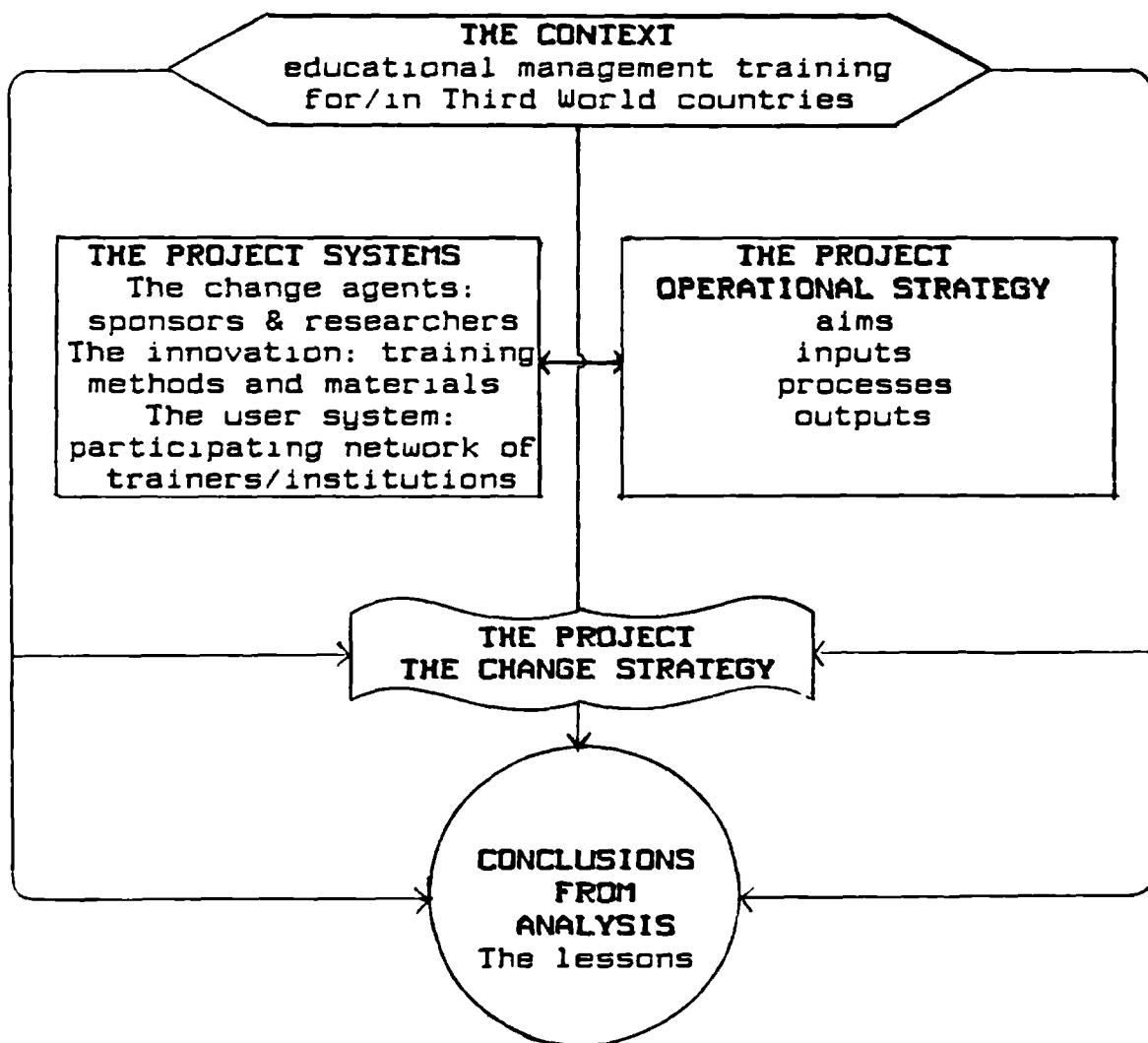
The case study on the ITWEAMM project would seem to lend itself to the sort of analyses proposed by the above writers. Using the terminology adopted by Bolam, the project assumed there was a need for improvement in educational management training provision in the Third World and adopted the role of the change agent. The overall change strategy was to establish precisely what that need was through research and to develop training methods and materials (the innovation) for use in training Third World managers (the user system). To achieve this, a variety of change interventions took place over a period of time, involving numerous people from different systems and sub-systems. An identification and examination of the critical dimensions, processes and interactions of the people and systems involved during the change process would highlight the critical factors which may or may not have contributed to project outcomes and enable lessons to be drawn concerning the project strategy.

To undertake the rigorous and detailed analysis suggested by the above models, would go beyond the scope of this study. The concern with the inputs, processes (throughputs) and outputs within the overall system and between the various systems over time, would require attention to be given to a very wide range of dimensions and processes; much more data would be needed than is already available or likely to be accessible. However, it is possible to draw on the above models, and develop a framework which helps to clarify the focus of the study and

suggest what seem to be the essential analytical questions.

It is proposed to analyse the case study at two levels. The purpose is to provide complementary perspectives on a range of questions. One level of analysis focuses on the aims and assumptions of the project, the inputs, the processes and outcomes. The second level of analysis, examines these more critically and in relation to the three systems involved: the 'change agent', the 'innovation' and the 'user'. Their characteristics and the nature of the relationships and interactions are considered with particular reference to the change strategy adopted and the overall context of the project. The framework is presented schematically in Figure 5.

Figure 5. A schematic diagram of the analytical approach



### Project analysis - critical questions

In sum, the analysis will explore the questions of what was planned, why and by whom, what happened and why, at both a micro and macro level. A few examples of the types of questions which could be posed are given below; not all of these will necessarily be fruitful or relevant. The remainder of this chapter analyses the case study material with a view to more fully understanding the project experience and assessing the project strategy.

### The Project: operational strategy

#### AIMS AND ASSUMPTIONS

- why did the project take place, what were the motivations?
- what assumptions were made by the sponsors and researchers concerning the Third World educational management training and strategies for improvement?
- what were the formulated aims and objectives?
- who were intended to be the beneficiaries?
- what assumptions did collaborators make about the project?
- did these characteristics change during the course of time? how?

#### INPUTS

- what were the main intended inputs (resources, plans, institutional frameworks)
- what human and material resources were available and were they adequate/satisfactory?
- what was the decision making and institutional framework, i.e. who decided what should be done, when, how, by whom, where?
- what influence did the different systems have on inputs if any?
- how was the project managed and organised?
- did these characteristics change during the course of time? how?

#### PROCESSES

- what was the implementation plan?
- what alternative methods of achieving the objectives were considered?

- what was the nature of the processes involved?
- how were the processes perceived by different parties?
- to what extent were processes altered in responses to outside influences?
- did these characteristics change during the course of time? how?

#### OUTCOMES

- what were the products?
- did the project achieve its main objectives?
- were there unanticipated results?
- what was the impact of the products on the users?
- what influence did project processes have on the various systems?
- what were the costs?
- how did these (products, impacts, costs, benefits) compare with those foreseen?

#### The Project: The systems

##### CHARACTERISTICS AND INTERACTIONS

- what were the significant characteristics of (a) the sponsor/research system, (b) the innovation, and (c) Third World educational management training systems/institutions/trainers with respect to change in general, and strategies for improvement and international assistance for training in particular?
  - \* what were they like before the project began?
  - \* what happened when they interacted with each other during the project?
  - \* what were they like at the end of the project?
  - \* what alternative strategies could have been adopted?
- what were the key influences on the three systems and their interactions with respect to the project?

#### The Project: Conclusions

##### LESSONS

- what factors contributed to the success or failure of the project?
- what are the key lessons that emerge from the project?



## 4.2 AN ANALYSIS OF PROJECT AIMS, PROCESSES AND OUTCOMES

### A summary of the key features of the project

The analysis of the project is based on project documentation, direct project experiences and more recent informal interviews with the sponsor and project director. Obviously issues and problems can be perceived in different ways influenced by the ideas and concerns of the individual(s) involved. Moreover, given that this analysis is undertaken by a project staff member and takes place some time after the events, it is inevitably tinged with hindsight and may be somewhat subjective (as discussed in section 1.3.3.). Hopefully however, it does present a reasonable assessment of the project's experiences and achievements.

In introduction, the key features of the project can be summarised as being:

- |                 |   |   |
|-----------------|---|---|
| The strategy    | - | research and materials development and limited dissemination  |
| The aims        | - | to research the topic (educational management training in the Third World) and develop training materials and methods for trainers; to stimulate the institutional materials development process and training methods |
| The assumptions | - | that there is a need to improve the quality of Third World educational management training provision; the project strategy would contribute towards this improvement  |
| The sponsors    | - | funded by a bilateral aid agency, the Overseas Development Administration of the UK, out of the research and development subhead of the overseas aid vote   |
| The researchers | - | a project team based at ULIE, consisting of a full time research officer under the direction of a ULIE lecturer   |

The participants (collaborators)	-	Third World trainers/institutions invited to participate in the project
The processes	-	a phased programme of base-line research, field studies and interventions, involving interactions between researchers and collaborators in a number of countries
The time span	-	originally a three year project, extended to four years
Feedback	-	information in the form of position papers and draft materials was disseminated to participants and other interested parties.
Monitoring	-	the project was required to submit an annual report to the ODA; this was copied to the ULIE directorate; one formal meeting with ODA
Evaluation	-	there were no built-in evaluation procedures; formative evaluation of the materials took place through workshops, and a follow-up impact study was held in one country
The outputs	-	a set of materials and reports and a number of journal articles; plans to mount a 'Training of Educational Management Trainers' course at ULIE. This research thesis
Dissemination	-	all project participants received a set of project outputs. A number of journal articles were published and papers were presented at two conferences (AIOE, CCEA).

#### 4.2.2 THE PROJECT AIMS AND ASSUMPTIONS

##### Motivations

An appropriate starting point is to examine why the project took place, asking what were the motivations of those involved in the early stages of project formulation?. There were initially three main stakeholders, the ODA as sponsors, the Department of Education in Developing Countries at the University of London Institute of Education (ULIE) and the lecturer/project director. As was described in section 3.1.1, the ODA's educational research policy at the time, was to strengthen UK institutions - the nominated centres (this policy has now changed as is discussed later on p. 215). The ULIE department is concerned with teaching Third World educationists, particularly educational planners, administrators and managers, and gives research activities a high priority. The lecturer submitting the grant application has a background of concern in educational management, media and innovation in the Third World.

The three parties to the research funding agreement were thus all motivated to do something about training Third World educational managers. The intrinsic motivations are less clear, although a number of suppositions can be made. Thus it could have been that the ODA wished to adopt a higher profile in its efforts to Third World educational management development given the high priority being given by many donor agencies to this field in the early eighties. Indeed this research submission was in competition with another proposal on teacher education from the same ULIE department. The reasons for choosing ITWEAMM are undocumented although it is informally reported that the ad hoc ODA research committee thought that it looked the better of the two proposals; i.e. a non subject-based criteria.

Establishing any hidden motivations for the other stakeholders is also difficult. Certainly the department, and the University, acquired some kudos in hosting an ODA project and extending its research base, as did the individual initiating and directing the project. However it is evident that the project proposal was prepared largely because it was known that the ODA was looking out for research proposals to fund.

When the project commenced an additional stakeholder became involved. The writer, as the research officer, was attracted by a job which appeared to be challenging, interesting and worthwhile. The work would utilise existing expertise and provide opportunities for further development of interests and skills; in addition, the job offered an entrance into the academic world and some security after a year of freelance work.

The other main group involved with the project were the participants who collaborated in their various ways. In so far as the project was conceived as being a participatory venture it could be argued that this group were potentially important stakeholders. The extent to which they themselves recognised/accepted this is linked to related motivational questions of benefits and incentives - issues which will be explored below.

#### Assumptions

The major premise on which the project was based was that educational management in the Third World was in need of improvement and that a research and development project focusing on educational management training in general and training methods and materials in particular would help contribute to this improvement. It was assumed that common training needs could be identified and that materials could be designed centrally at a western institution for use by trainers of Third World educational managers. It was also assumed that trainers would welcome the project as a mutually-beneficial activity and be willing to co-operate fully during the various stages of the project. A related issue is that there was a possibly over-optimistic view (held by sponsors and project director) that the project would generate enough interest amongst other western institutions and agencies to ensure their active co-operation and perhaps to generate additional funding. This, as is explained below, was not realised.

It was evident early on in the project that certain of these assumptions were questionable. A few explanatory comments will be made on this now and further light will be thrown on these faulty assumptions in subsequent discussions.

The various people involved in the project, not unnaturally, had different perceptions on the nature of the problem(s) and possible solution(s). The project aimed to provide materials for trainers of Third World educational managers. These trainers were assumed by the ODA sponsors to be those based at UK institutions. It will be argued later that the characteristics of institutional training and trainers in the UK and overseas is so different as to render such an aim unfeasible. In the event the project focused on materials for use by Third World trainers.

It was expected that Third World institutions would be extremely responsive to the project and be willing to participate actively; i.e. that they would perceive the problem and solution in a similar way. Certainly the initial response was overwhelmingly positive, as the following extracts from two letters suggests:

My colleagues are very enthusiastic about the aims and products of the project. Indeed, many aspects of this research and development project should directly serve to improve the quality of our work and services in educational administration.

and:

The project is very timely. There is a need for assessing training demands ... There is also a great need for developing training materials and techniques. May I therefore assure you of my full support in your endeavour for trying to find a solution to one of the greatest needs of the developing countries.

In the event however, whilst it was clear that there was widespread recognition of the problem and an acknowledgement that the project might come up with some solutions, the project staff's perception of actual benefit to be derived through participating in the project (supply of useful materials) was not universally shared. A particular problem was that a number of potential participants assumed that there would be some financial benefit to be gained from participating.

The difficulty was that while the project's aim could be stated quite explicitly as research and materials development, there was some confusion and ambiguity

regarding both the overall strategy and the more specific objectives, and hence difficulty in successfully 'selling' the project. Partly this was because the project was trying to be all things to all people. It needed the academic respectability of a research project tag, particularly within the Institute itself where the original research proposal had to be approved by the research committee. But also within the academic research community at large, for example the IIEP saw it as a serious research-based project as did certain American institutions. On the other hand, having a final useable product (training materials) was the only benefit offered to immediate participants.

However, materials dissemination (as distinct from development) was not seen to be a major aim of the project; given this omission, it was not suprising that questions were raised concerning the precise nature and status of the project. Was it an experimental project, testing the feasibility of the assumption as presented in the project's aims (western originated materials would lead to training improvement)? In which case, what was the benefit for clients? In one or two countries, the perception of the project as a western 'research' project gave rise to distinctly unfavourable and even negative responses. Alternatively, was the project a form of direct assistance through the supply of materials? or, technical assistance in the form of support for institutional training/staff development?

A further question linked to the above, concerns the formulation of what one might call a technical and western solution ("developing a product - materials - for clients") to a set of problems which were (are) not necessarily technical. It became clear that there was a need to adopt a more flexible approach, and this was conceptualised in the formulation of additional project aims of "stimulating institutional materials development processes and promoting the use of more appropriate training methodologies". These aims, reflecting a more pragmatic approach to the problem of management training, derived from the educational technology perspective favoured by the research officer, and were adopted in the materials evaluation phase.

This fundamental re-appraisal of the project strategy came about during the research phase, when the feasibility of maintaining the traditional research approach to materials development was first brought into question. The widely advocated development of materials from base-line surveys assumes a commonality which may not exist across cultures. Rather than develop curriculum materials which may not be universally applicable, a more appropriate set of objectives seemed to be to develop exemplar materials for local adaptation. Thus the aim of the base-line surveys became to establish a deeper understanding of the nature of Third World educational management training provision rather than to develop a taxonomy of skills and competencies (as originally envisaged). The project research hypothesis became more focused on whether and how approaches to training developed in the west could be transferred to the Third World, rather than on questions concerning content.

Further light will be thrown on questions such as the above in the subsequent discussion of project processes and outputs, and in the more critical examination of the overall project strategy. To some extent, many of the implementation problems which the project encountered derive from the rather hazy formulation of the project strategy (in terms of objectives, processes and products). The implications of the strategy had not been fully thought through. For example, whilst a participatory approach was proposed, the precise nature and implications of participation were never made explicit to the recipients.

In sum, it will be argued that the actual formulation of the project strategy as being a way of helping to bring about improvement in Third World educational management training, was fundamentally flawed in that certain underlying assumptions were faulty. Moreover project objectives lacked clarity because of the perceived need to legitimize the project within different and diverse systems.

#### 4.2.3 THE PROJECT INPUTS AND PROCESSES

The means (inputs and processes) for implementing the project strategy were briefly outlined in section 3.1.2. Since the key feature of these was the 'network' it will be

helpful to consider how the concept evolved and was deployed.

#### The Network

The original plan was to involve two or three institutions/countries in the base-line survey and materials testing processes. This, together with the criteria for selecting countries, was outlined in the project director's letter of application to the ODA, as follows:

Selection of LDCs for base-line survey and testing of materials:- the important criterion here is to settle on three institutions with the commitment and the capacity to collaborate with the project at a highly effective level. Geographical spread is significant, but less of a priority. Several institutions in different countries have expressed an interest in participating but I propose to work with those offering the best quality collaboration .... Other countries could be brought in, if additional non-ODA finance is obtained (November 30, 1981)

In the event, a somewhat different approach was adopted. Thus although the project worked closely with a number of institutions and individuals, this did not take the form of extensive participation originally envisaged, i.e. with survey work being undertaken by participants, although a number were willing to do so (see page 140). There was thus a shift from the project being a truly collaborative venture involving joint partnership work with a few institutions, to it being a venture wherein a larger network of institutions were information providers.

The failure to fully realise joint action within the framework of the project deprived the undertaking of an important and potentially valuable set of resources. The reasons for the change of policy were not totally clear, but were partly economic and partly logistic. Thus the network was larger than originally planned in order to spread the risk in the event of institutions dropping out. The larger network was then itself difficult to sustain. This was possibly aggravated by insufficient project interest/capability in devising means of overcoming structural problems and building and sustaining network co-



operation. It could also be that there was an element of project arrogance in not actively encouraging any local initiatives, believing that local ability/interest would not be sufficient/maintained. A number of these points will be explored further.

As was described earlier, institutions involved in educational administration training were approached by means of a circular letter (sometimes personalised where there were individual contacts) inviting them to participate in the project. A few of these contacts were at Ministry level, but the majority were directly to the institution; primarily higher education institutions in Commonwealth countries.

It was evident from a number of responses received, that there was some confusion concerning the participant's role, and potential problems deriving from the 'research' aspect of the project. This is revealed in the following two comments:

I would be participating in my personal capacity ... the reason I am not suggesting participation of my Institute is that such an involvement would need official sanction and lots of red tape which I am not willing to untangle.

and:

...it is assumed that the activities of the project would obviously involve certain minimum facilities to be provided here in terms of staff, stationery, other materials and contingencies etc.. I am sure that in view of the continuously acute financial constraints of this University for the last few years, you could manage to provide the bare requisite assistance for this purpose to enable the University to play its due role in undertaking this project.

The former is from the Malaysian Ministry of Education sponsored educational staff training institute, precisely the type of institute with whom the project should (with hindsight) have been seeking to establish contact. This suggests that it might have been better had the initial approach been through the Ministry, despite the likely time delays (in any event Ministry contact became necessary when it came to mounting field visits).

By contrast, individuals at higher education institutions, were on the whole more positive in their responses. However, the nature of their training activities and clientele is such that they were not necessarily the most appropriate partners. This point will be clarified in the discussion of materials evaluation workshops. Moreover, as the second extract illustrates, university lecturers do operate under institutional constraints and pressures. Significantly, there was an understandable drop off in interest when it became evident that the project would not be offering research grants or consultancy fees.

These difficulties would seem to stem from a major anomaly in the project design. The network was conceived of as being the key institutional framework within which the project would operate, and a means of providing credibility to project activities and outcomes. The network participants were thus an essential resource; yet despite the project being dependent on them for information and facilities, the design did not allow for any acknowledgement of these inputs in financial terms, nor was it able to offer other professional incentives such as attendance at an overseas workshop. The problem of trying to stimulate and maintain interest in the project amongst Third World countries became a matter of crucial concern when it came to materials evaluation.

The role of western institutions was also problematical, and relates to the issue raised earlier concerning the differing perceptions which existed between researchers and sponsors as to who were the potential clients for the materials. The ODA view throughout the project was that close links would be established with trainers of Third World students in other UK institutions, (particularly the nominated centres), and that project products would contribute towards improving UK-based training provision. Certainly the background notes to the original project submission highlights these possibilities for collaboration:-

It is intended to seek co-operation of appropriate UK institutions in developing and testing these materials - particularly Leeds University, Moray House and

Sheffield Polytechnic, and to hold a series of workshops outside London so that practitioners in this field can meet and comment on the materials in pilot form. (November, 1981)

However, whilst detailed discussions were held with the key UK trainers, it became very evident that perceptions of the worth of the projects' products was not universally shared. Partly this can be attributed to cross-institutional and professional jealousies - there is naturally competition for ODA research funding and the overseas student market. Partly, and this may derive from similar causes, there was a view that the project as presented was not very realistic or realisable. However, it must also be said that a number of individuals were interested and extremely supportive, and provided feedback on pilot materials. The fact that no actual field testing was carried out in the UK (other than at ULIE by the writer), was largely due to the inappropriateness of this tactic given that the training materials were developed for use and adaptation by Third World trainers.

#### Human resources

The other major project resources in terms of personnel was of course the project team itself, its institutional base and the sponsors. The project director had adopted a traditional phased research and development approach, with a high proportion of the funding covering the employment of a full time research officer. There were small sub heads to cover a couple of overseas field visits each year, administrative/secretarial assistance, and consumables. The project director's own involvement was initially presented as being three to four man months per year. As it turned out the research officer worked for most of the time alone on the project, undertaking desk research, following-up contact and research suggestions, preparing and discussing ideas, plans and proposals for field visits, suggesting tactics, writing and preparing reports, papers and materials etc...

The project was based within a department having faculty with a wide range of research interests in

educational planning and management in developing countries. There was some general interest in the project as a venture, and support in terms of a reduced work load for the project director, however there was a suprising lack of more specific interest in project processes and products, and virtually no feedback on circulated project documentation; perhaps this is not so suprising, given the individualistic and sectarian nature of most academic pursuit.

The sponsors involvement in the project processes was minimal. Having approved the original project design (the memory is that some minor modifications were suggested) they played virtually no part in project planning and decision-making, except in so far as they responded (generally positively) to small requests for additional funding. They received regular annual reports, and during the four years of the project one formal meeting was held to review progress. On one or two occasions suggestions were made as to possible contacts, but there was no provision of information on, or even linkages with, other ODA activities in the area of educational management training (possibly there were none). Prior to the Kenya field visit, discussions were held with the ODA Education Officer with responsibility for the region with a view to acquiring background information to contextualise the visit. But in general no ODA assistance was sought for setting up and gaining clearance for overseas visits (there was some British Council involvement in visits to Kenya, India and Sri Lanka as noted in section 3.3).

The relationship between the sponsors and researchers is explored further in section 4.3.1. The main point to make at this stage is that the project staff probably didn't exploit the ODA as a resource to maximum effect. Partly this was a reflection of the project director's wish to retain complete freedom in operational terms; the ODA certainly respected the original contract-statement about academic freedom. Such freedom was also reflected within the institutional framework. Except in one instance when the question of institutional responsibility and authority concerning the project arose (see p. 216), the project director was given a completely free hand by everyone concerned.

### Material resources

The final cost of the project was around £100,000 over four years; in the event nearly double that originally costed. In ODA terms this is very small, but it represented the largest proportion of their aid to education under the research and development subhead at the time (ODA, 1985). The low level of funding was one reason why the project director designed the project in a way which attempted to draw on external resources, by seeking collaborators in the field. At the outset, the scope of the project was determined by cost constraints, as the original submission observes:-

The survey and materials development work outlined above will have to be tailored in scope to fit the available finance, and it might be desirable to approach additional sources of funding (subject to ODA agreement), such as World Bank or IDRC to carry out the project on a less restricted scale. There would not be much change out of £15-16,000 per annum after paying for a full-time research officer and part-time secretarial help. (November, 1981).

The project director approached a number of agencies during the first year of the project to seek additional funding but this proved to be unsuccessful. Discussions were also held at a later stage of the project, with agencies such as the World Bank and Unesco, concerning possible funding for workshops and the publication of the materials. However, whilst there was interest in the project, it proved impossible to tap these sources for finance. In any event, mixed funding of project activities might have rendered them excessively complex.

The resource constraints had a major effect on the way in which the the project was designed, organised and implemented. This was not just a matter of limited resources, but also the restrictions surrounding their use. Thus the project was not able to offer financial incentives to collaborators because no mechanism was established for paying local research personnel and their costs - no budget subhead existed. The project director did not want to "buy help", nor did he believe it to be feasible under the conditions of ODA funding. As it later transpired, this was

a self-imposed constraint since the ODA has no objection to paying the local costs of projects funded under research if it will contribute to that research. They can not however do this under technical assistance. It seems that to some extent there was a lack of communication on this issue, but also, as is noted later, there have been a number of changes at the ODA with respect to personalities and structures. However, there was a precedent for paying local researchers in the INSET Africa project (see p. 241); it may have been a matter of "where there's a will there's a way". The project design assumed that acceptable incentives were the 'benefit of mutual endeavour' and provision of project products, and when this was clearly not so, it was rather too late to change tactics and budgeting arrangements.

#### Implementation - the research process

Research was an essential dimension of the project. As described in section 3.2.1, a large part of the first year was devoted to data collection utilising questionnaire surveys, library sources and field visits. The former presented few problems, the survey response was comparatively good and a wealth of valuable information was gleaned from the literature, with the ULIE library proving to be a useful resource. The field visits undertaken by the research officer in Kenya and India were productive, but salutary experiences in so far as they raised some fundamental questions concerning the nature and status of the project.

The problems encountered in Kenya in trying to gain acceptance of the project aims and in acquiring clearance for research were highlighted in section 3.3.2. Difficulties were also experienced in obtaining clearance from the Ministry of Education and Culture in India to work with their National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration. Indeed, despite a lead time of six months from the first contact with the Under Secretary in the Ministry and considerable assistance from the British Council in New Delhi, formal approval did not actually come through until after the visit was underway.

The cause of the problem lay in the fact that the

project was perceived by many to be primarily a research project rather than a form of technical assistance, indeed this was how it was described in its documentation and on the letter head; its status was always slightly ambiguous. Thus it was never totally clear that formal clearance was necessary in Kenya particularly since the project was working through the university. As an experienced expatriate in that country commented "the difficulty is that if you write and enquire about clearance an official will say that it is required". In India, the host institution requested that clearance be obtained and so there was little choice but to go through the necessary procedures.

It could be argued that a more significant reason for such difficulties was that the project represented a strategy and presented a solution to a problem which was neither acceptable to, accepted by or even identified in the recipient countries. Once again, this is a key issue which will be taken up later in the more detailed examination of the project strategy.

The research phase was an invaluable part of the project process, despite, and also because of, the field operation complexities. A number of important conclusions were drawn concerning the nature of Third World educational management training provision, and training needs, which had implications for the subsequent process of materials development.

#### Implementation - the materials development process

The materials and the rationale underlying their development were described in some detail in section 3.2.2. A number of points concerning the materials development process will be summarised here. Firstly it became clear that the training situations which the project was hoping to assist were considerably more complex than originally envisaged. Moreover the original project intention of compiling a taxonomy of relevant administrative skills and competencies was patently unrealistic, if not impossible. Whilst there may well be certain generic administrative and management skills; there was no commonality of needs other than in the broadest sense. As a result, the survey work

carried out was not as useful for curriculum and materials development as had been hoped. Not only did it not help in identifying a common training need for materials development, but also, it suggested problems in training, not all of which could be solved through materials development. In the event the project opted for developing a set of materials which did not fall neatly into any traditionally defined group of administrative tasks or skills, rather, it focused on the more general problem area of managing educational change.

Secondly, was the related issue of how best to identify and select appropriate methods and materials for development. Whilst there was general agreement that case-studies, in-tray exercises, simulations, games and role-plays are a few of the more obvious techniques to exploit in training educational managers, it is clear that many countries not only lack the necessary infrastructures (training institutions, courses, workshops) for their exploitation, but also that many trainers are not equipped with the methodological expertise to effectively utilise such materials were they available. Moreover, there was some indication that western originated pre-packaged materials would not be universally acceptable, and that such materials should be developed locally.

The implications of these findings for the project design and scheduling were significant. Essentially what it meant was that materials could not be produced in isolation but needed to be considered in relation to how, when, where and by whom they would be used. It seemed desirable to develop materials which incorporated structuring devices (e.g. as a basis for a workshop) and which included considerable support and guidance for trainers in their use. Furthermore such materials were to be presented as prototypes, adopting a modular and flexible approach allowing local selection, modification and adaptation. Materials development employing these strategies proved to be considerably more time consuming than originally anticipated. It also introduced further questions concerning the usability of more complex materials and the desirability of providing additional project inputs to improve take-up.



### Implementation - materials dissemination & evaluation

The materials evaluation process was described in section 3.2.3., and it is of interest here to analyse the procedures adopted in further detail.

During the course of the project it had become very clear that some form of encouragement was needed to maintain the interest and co-operation of participants, and this was particularly evident when it came to the materials evaluation stage. As a result, the idea of mounting a 'global' workshop for network participants was considered (there was a precedent for this in the INSET Africa project, although significantly the dissemination phase of that project was funded by West German not ODA aid). The ODA felt that this was a non-starter on cost grounds and suggested that it was more appropriate to organise regional workshops with local costs being met by the institutes involved in the project. However, when the project attempted to initiate something along these lines by suggesting that the ODA fund three external trainers to attend the Sri Lanka materials evaluation workshop, the request was turned down (it was admittedly a rather late and unco-ordinated request as at the time the project director was on six months leave of absence).

The problems deriving from the perceived restrictions in the way ODA funds could be deployed in-country, were thus acutely manifest when it came to planning the details of the materials evaluation activities. It was difficult to foresee this since the precise nature of materials trialling could not really be established until the materials were in the development stage. At this point, it was clear that sending materials overseas with an evaluation guide was an inadequate approach and that what was needed was a series of workshops. To do this reasonably effectively required a project extension and additional funding, to which the ODA agreed. The problem then, was how best these workshops should be mounted given that it was not thought possible, nor was there sufficient funds to meet the costs of local participants (collaborators, trainees etc.).

A means had to be found to encourage local institutions or Ministries of Education to cover the costs

of workshops. The project was not in a position to exercise much control or leverage in this, other than by suggesting they be mounted and by attempting to stimulate or even ventriloquise a request for an 'Education Seminar' to the British Council in country. The importance of responding to local needs is of course the essence of the ODA's argument concerning local costs in its technical assistance programme; but it does make a research project such as this doubly difficult when it moves into what is in effect a technical assistance phase.

In sum, the project had to rely on local commitment and the initiative of a participant to mount a training event involving the project materials. In the event, the main mechanisms through which the project was able to mount workshops were: the ODA/British Council 'Education Seminar' in Sri Lanka (where the question of payment to trainers arose); a University initiative in Kenya, building on the ULIE/Kenyatta link and involving matched UK/Kenya funding (again, the question of payment to trainers, and to trainees arose); and a training seminar in Mauritius in which the project itself actually ran a two day training event on an on-going course.

#### Summative evaluation

Whereas formative materials evaluation was an integral part of the project, no overall summative evaluation of the project itself was included in the original project formulation. This was not felt to be part of the project remit, and it was not required by the sponsors. Moreover, given that the project was initially conceived to include a strong research element it might be supposed that more attention would have been given to hypothesis testing. A few comments should therefore be made concerning the issues of research and evaluation.

As already noted, the project shifted its research orientation away from the acquisition and rigorous analysis of data on Third World educational management training, towards a research hypothesis as to whether approaches to training developed in the west could be transferred to Third World countries. However, in order to draw any firm

conclusions on this hypothesis, would have required some form of comparative experimental approach, for example running a parallel project producing different types of materials. In the event no real attempt was made at the time to pursue either the initial or the re-defined research objectives of the project. As the project director acknowledges, the project was primarily concerned with developing materials and the research side was really a veneer.

It would also have been difficult to undertake any thorough summative evaluation of the project itself. To the extent that evaluation depends on clearly defined objectives, there was a limited foundation and criteria on which to base a study given that these changed in the course of time. Thus the project processes and the context within which the project operated compounded the evaluation problem. The base-line survey, as originally proposed, was meant to provide information on the basis of which materials would be developed. Any assessment of the overall project success could only be in relation to these benchmarks. In the absence of any in depth country research it was therefore difficult to evaluate the materials in terms of meeting training needs, let alone in relation to wider contextual factors of educational management improvement. The major problem of course was that any realistic summative evaluation would require an overall assessment of the project impact in terms of the contribution of research findings and the take-up of materials the results of which could only be known post facto and over a long time scale.

In the light of the above, it was understandable that no immediate overall project evaluation was undertaken. However, when the project aims were reformulated to include the aims of promoting institutional materials development and improving trainer methods, it became possible to consider attempting some form of impact study in a country in which a materials evaluation workshop had been held. Such an assessment would have needed to adopt a broad perspective looking very carefully at the many factors surrounding materials dissemination and utilisation, including the close inter-relationship between methods and materials, the

problems of implementing innovations, and the conditions which might contribute towards success or otherwise. The follow-up study in Sri Lanka addressed such issues and drew some tentative conclusions, as outlined in section 3.3.3.

This small scale study was undertaken on the initiative of the research officer, and although the project director approved it, he believed that it would have limited value. Certainly there were limitations to the study, (e.g. in attributing any changes solely to the project), and its value probably lay more in providing a further opportunity to assess the project processes than any impact per se, and in maintaining contact/support for the group of trainers involved. The latter point was made by the local British Council officer, who had been largely responsible for helping to ensure that the visit was approved.

A final observation concerns the ODA's view on project evaluation (as against project monitoring which was carried out by them throughout project implementation). It might be thought that as stakeholders, they would have had some interest in evaluation. However, while the ODA evaluation department systematically examines projects in all sectors and prepares reports of its findings, the emphasis lies with evaluating its larger operations. Evaluation of small scale projects is not the norm (although reports on all such projects are produced), and a minor research project could perhaps be thought to offer few lessons to guide future decision-making. (It is interesting to note that the ODA is currently thinking of evaluating its sponsored research)

Underlying the above point is a factor which had a major bearing on the way in which the project was implemented; namely the differing perceptions and resulting ambivalence concerning the nature and status of the project. Many of the problems highlighted in discussing the project processes derive from the way in which the project was set up as a research project, rather than as an initiative which would contribute in some more direct way to Third World educational development. This issue will be pursued in subsequent discussions of project strategy.

#### 4.2.4 THE PROJECT OUTCOMES

Any overall assessment of what the project actually achieved and what changes resulted from it, must be prudent and necessarily subjective. At face value, the outcomes were the project products (as listed on page 142). However, a few further comments can be made concerning these products which throw some light on project outcomes and the project as a whole.

Firstly, it is useful to reflect on how the final products compare with original intentions. A superficial reading of the project description would suggest that the project team would design a set of pre-packaged, self-contained materials and techniques, to be marketed (somehow) to clients in the field. There were however some marked differences between what was originally intended and what was actually achieved.

As the earlier descriptions and the above analyses reveal, the project had intended to develop training materials based on field work investigations in several countries, for use in training in Third World countries and on UK courses for overseas students (one of the criteria for ODA funding as noted earlier.) The implicit assumption was that the expertise to develop materials and techniques lay in the western sphere. In the event, the more extensive, but less in-depth survey and field work actually undertaken highlighted the commonality problems inherent in this approach to materials development. It was clear from overseas feedback that there was a need for materials of broad applicability and ones which were both trainee and trainer-oriented. This was the major reason why the project shifted its focus away from developing materials which might be used by both Third World and UK trainers; the main beneficiaries were to be Third World trainers and training institutions rather than UK institutions.

Thus as the project evolved, it was increasingly evident that a key role that it could or should be playing was in providing trainers with insights into a range of training methodologies and in stimulating the institutional materials development process. Such processes might or might not be based on the project prototype materials, but

it was hoped that the ideas and approaches incorporated in the materials would encourage Third World trainers to re-assess their own approaches and where appropriate consider the adoption and development of a wider range of training methods and materials. These additional aims were thus built into the project workshop strategy in Sri Lanka and Kenya. The Sri Lanka follow-up study suggested that at least in part, the project was successful in this respect.

Secondly, in examining the project products, a particularly crucial concern surrounds the whole question of publication and dissemination. It was planned that the findings of the research (surveys and evaluation) phase would be written up in a final report to participating institutions and the sponsor, and that selected aspects of these findings would be written up in journal articles for general publication. There was only limited achievement on both these counts and the information which was disseminated was neither comprehensive nor particularly focused towards the original, or modified, research concerns. As already noted, the research aspect to the project was rather undermined by the fact that most attention was given to materials development. However, the lessons learnt through the project experiences which are presented here can also be considered to be important project outcomes and thus this research thesis is an 'unanticipated' outcome of the project.

The project terms of reference and funding did not cover the publication of materials; these were to be taken to the point of completion. The exclusion of publication is not uncommon with ODA funded research and development projects, but it is strange for this particular project given that the main output was materials. The expected procedure is that funding and arrangements for publication will be organised during the course of the project (either direct publication by the ODA, or publication through a publisher).

The reason that the publication issue was not pursued during the project formulation stage was that the nature of the project was such that it would have been difficult to make decisions on publication in advance. The project

director thought that it would be better that "the question of publication of these materials be examined toward completion of the project, since their eventual content and form may have a bearing on the question".

However, in the final analysis, it may be wondered if this was not a fundamental error of judgement (indeed this view was expressed in a number of quarters). It could be argued that to initiate and/or fund a project which aims to develop materials without earmarking finance for publication will seriously weaken the whole project. The absence of any indication of the amount of production/publication finance made it very difficult to adopt a truly systematic approach to the design of learning experiences. For example, there seemed little point in editing some audio tape recordings made in India, or in collecting or developing further audio visual materials.

The counter argument to this could however be that this project was funded out of the ODA's educational research budget. The ODA assumed that if something worthwhile was produced there would be no difficulty in getting it accepted by a commercial publisher. The fact that this has not happened as yet, despite interest from the Economic Development Institute of the World Bank, and the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, would therefore suggest that the materials are not considered 'worth' publishing. Materials such as the ones produced have such a limited market as to render publication commercially unviable. It may also be that the requisite effort has not been made in pursuing the publishers and the agencies mentioned above. Whatever the reason, it seems unfortunate that project funding did not cover publication in some form (the ODA met the costs of an offset printing run of 75 copies of each project document).

Finally, there is the question of the project influence outside its immediate operational framework (the network). This is unfortunately impossible to judge. One measure is the extent to which 'word got around' and resulted in requests for information and materials. Certainly the project hasn't unleashed a string of requests to ULIE for copies of project documentation, a mere trickle

are reported. Another measure, could be any indication of plagiarisation of project documents; there is some evidence of this in a document emanating from a Unesco regional office which lifts the literature review references. It is also known that there has been some use by 'outsiders' of parts of the project materials.

A further criteria by which the project might be indirectly assessed is through an examination of its unanticipated outcomes. This thesis apart, the other direct result of the project were plans to mount a course at ULIE, to meet a perceived need for training the trainers. The outline for a three month course was prepared and circulated during the last year of the project and response was very positive. Subsequently, the writer was contracted to develop and market the course, but in the event there have been insufficient numbers to warrant mounting the course; this may just suggest that its underlying assumptions are faulty.

Ultimately, the main criteria of project impact must be whether any project manuals and materials, or adaptation of project materials become more widely used in Third World countries, and this will take time. It might be argued that some attention should have been given to encourage the diffusion and adoption process. The difficulty here is that the now that the project has officially finished there is no real mechanisms for maintaining any momentum generated. The ODA has indicated that it will be very willing to consider supporting any workshops based on the project outputs. This would be as technical assistance in the form of 'Education Seminars', which means that the request would need to come (and local costs met) from in-country; once again the problem lies in stimulating such requests. It is of interest that the writer has been asked to mount a further materials writing workshop in Sri Lanka. Whether this takes place or not will probably depend both on the political situation in that troubled country and on ODA support.

In sum, the major problems with the project outcomes concern dissemination and support for utilisation of the material products. These derive in turn from inherent problems in the project design and overall strategy; issues which the next section will examine more critically.



### 4.3. A CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF OVERALL PROJECT STRATEGY

The previous section has analysed the project with respect to its aims and assumptions, inputs and processes, and outcomes. The discussion focused on the major problems which were encountered and it was suggested at a number of points that many of these could be traced back to the way in which the project was conceptualised and operationalised.

The project was concerned with strengthening educational management training in and for the Third World and the strategy adopted was research and materials development. The project was thus innovatory (a deliberate attempt to bring about improvement in training) involving the manipulation of certain elements by a number of people in various contexts over a period of time.

The analytical framework presented in section 4.1.1, suggests that the examination of the project in terms of four factors: three major systems and their interactions with respect to the project processes over time, will enable lessons to be drawn about the overall project as a change strategy. The three major systems were the change agent system (the sponsors and researchers); the innovation (the project methods and materials) and the user system (the network of individuals and institutions in Third World countries). These will be examined in turn and in relation to each other, drawing on and summarising some of the earlier discussions in section 4.2.

#### 4.3.1 THE THREE SYSTEMS AND THEIR INTERACTIONS

##### The change agent system - sponsors and researchers

The key person in the change agent system was the project director, as the person who proposed and formulated the project strategy and initiated the change process. This was however done within a framework of limited funding possibilities and thus without access to a full range of change strategies, and it is therefore important for any examination of the project change agent system to include some discussion of the sponsor as a change agent.

A useful analysis of aid provision and policies is presented by Clifton-Everest (1986). He draws on the annual

ODA information pamphlets British Aid to Education in Developing Countries and ODA's 1984 Education Sector Policy Paper which emphasise that overall, British aid policy is highly pragmatic and based on the principle of bringing British resources to bear on the agreed needs of developing countries. These needs are oriented towards manpower requirements and improved social conditions, and thus educational aid is supportive of a broad human resources development strategy.

Within this framework, priority areas include training both in Britain and in the developing countries, especially for planners, administrators, managers, and advisers; support for ELT; pre-vocational, vocational and technical education; support for elements of formal education at all levels; encouraging co-operation between tertiary institutions in the UK and overseas; experiment and innovation in non-formal education; co-operation in the application of distance education techniques and in the production of materials and programmes in both formal and non-formal education; provision of school books and materials; research in education directed to the solution or illumination of problems of special interest in the aid programme; and the evaluation of aid.

ODA support is almost exclusively in the form of technical co-operation, provision of expert services, training, and for the sake of convenience some capital support items such as books and certain media materials. Training is supported through a fellowship scheme, the majority of these being for study in Britain. As far as possible, training is related to the development of manpower required by key development projects. The main thrust of the assistance is towards enabling overseas countries to undertake their own work in their own situation. The aid to any particular country is provided on a government-to-government basis, and in response to requests by the recipient government. If a request for assistance is put forward as a priority for funding out of the aid programme the relevant geographical desk in ODA will look at it.

As part of its contribution to educational development, the ODA operates certain forms of technical

assistance outside country-programme allocations under functional schemes. These include in-country educational seminars run by visiting experts and the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowships Plan. The fixed resources are allocated largely on a first come first served basis. Funds are rarely available for specific one-off UK activities such as a workshops or seminars, other than for quite major events focusing on global or policy issues; such as the Windsor Conference on aid to Africa (Hawes and Coombe, 1986). The ODA also operates a research and development budget, to fund research projects based in UK institutions which aim to contribute towards Third World development. Funding to education represents just over one per cent of this total budget (ODA, 1985). Since this was the only means through which a UK institution or individual could directly tap ODA funding, this then, was the basis of the project funding.

It should be pointed out that ODA's research policy for education has changed in the last few years, partly as a result of personnel changes. In the past, proposals were submitted to the ODA for consideration for funding and research grants were awarded to projects which would help strengthen UK training institutions ('nominated centres'). Since 1983, the present Principal Education Adviser commissions research to help ODA to manage the aid programme more effectively; i.e. the criteria is knowledge which will be valuable to ODA. Present policy is also much more concerned with working through Third World institutions and creating collaborative research projects; in this respect TIWEAMM fits the current policy better than that which pertained when it was funded. There have also been structural changes within the ODA which mean that advisers, through a new line management system, are more in contact with the principal dealing with research. There is more monitoring of projects, a greater number of meetings with researchers, and everything is reportedly much more efficient. For example, any clearance required for overseas research would be handled by the ODA in advance, and if difficulties are anticipated the project may not be set up.

It would seem then, that expectations for the

relationships between sponsor and researcher are slightly different now than five years ago. In 1982, having agreed to fund the research project, the ODA left the project design and implementation very much in the hands of the researchers, the only requirement being the regular submission of annual reports. Contact between sponsor and project team during the course of the project was minimal, except in the very early days of the life of the project, and mainly in response to project requests for additional funding and an extension. Only one formal progress review meeting was held. This was held in the second year of the project at the request of the ODA to discuss topics for materials development and materials development strategies, but was largely unproductive. Suggestions made by ODA staff concerning syllabus-type materials were not followed through.

The whole question of accountability remained somewhat ambivalent. The research grant is made to the institution who are held accountable for utilisation of funds but not, it was presumed, for project implementation itself. The issue was raised at an early stage of the ITWEAMM project by the then Head of Department, and the suggestion was made that it might be desirable for a Steering Committee to be formed. This was not pursued, and it is arguable as to whether it would have had any influence, given the nature of the project and the personalities involved.

A further feature of the change agent system, which is of significance in understanding the overall project strategy, concerns the role adopted by the change agent(s) and the change strategy used. A brief digression may help clarify this. Numerous typologies of change agent role and strategies appear in the literature. One well-known typology (Bennis, Banne and Chin, 1969) discusses strategies in terms of whether they are primarily power/coercive (depending on use of legal or administrative power); empirical/rational (depending on explanation and demonstration to disseminate knowledge); or normative/re-educative (typically involving efforts to bring about changes in attitudes, skills etc through co-operative working). Power/co-ercive strategies are primarily concerned with bringing about major policy changes, and more

relevant to this discussion, are approaches to the diffusion of knowledge suggested in the empirical/rational and normative/re-educative groups of strategies.

Havelock (1969) considers these in terms of four models: social-interaction; research, development and diffusion; the problem-solver; and the linkage model. Few projects fall neatly into any one of these categories, which is probably why writers such as Havelock are continually refining their typologies. The ITWEAMM project strategy had many of the features of the R D & D model. It proposed a rational sequence whereby new knowledge on Third World educational management training would serve as a basis for the development of materials which would be introduced to practitioners - the trainers of Third World educational managers - in the diffusion stage; the final adoption phase was unelaborated. However, recognising the likely scepticism of users when confronted with an 'outside' innovation being introduced by a western agency utilising a top-down (or centre-periphery) strategy, the project attempted to include features of the participative problem-solving and social interaction paradigms - the linkage model, by establishing a network of participants and participative workshops.

The project network aimed to promote Third World participation, joint need identification and problem-solving. In the event however, as was highlighted in earlier discussions, the collaborators were never truly involved in a participative process. Furthermore, existing external structures (i.e. the Third World training institutions, their constraints, personnel and value systems), internal structures (project institutional arrangements, funding, personnel and value systems) time constraints; and contextual factors (e.g. political climates, cultural determinants and language constraints - the need to operate in English) imposed limits on the extent to which the project could fully adopt and implement this strategy.

In sum, the change strategy originally formulated was modified during the course of time. This was largely due to limitations within the change agent system itself, in that the nature of the problem being addressed was not fully

understood and the processes involved were underestimated. The change strategy was unable to reconcile the resulting variance between numerous factors involved in the project, as previous discussions have attempted to highlight. A particularly critical factor influencing the way the project operated was the users' perception and interpretation of the characteristics of the innovation and of the change agent system, as is discussed below.

#### The innovation system - training methods & materials

Many studies of educational innovation have drawn attention to the importance of all those involved being clear as to the precise nature of the innovation being introduced. This is not just a matter of how the innovation is initially defined, but also as to how it becomes re-defined over time. A fundamental issue is that there may well be different perceptions on this, both amongst and between the change agent and the user system.

A major premise of the original project design was that there was a commonality of needs in Third World countries. It was assumed that it would be feasible to compile a taxonomy of relevant administrative skills and competencies which would enable materials to be developed to meet these needs. To this end, the research phase included a review of the literature and surveys of Third World training provision, content, methods and materials. During the course of this, it became clear that what was required was not a pre-packaged set of specific skill-oriented and content-based materials, but a more complex innovation. This should consist of prototype materials combining trainee elements and trainer support which were flexible enough to meet the needs of diverse user systems, and thus more transferable.

Rightly or wrongly, this was the researchers view of what was the most appropriate way of approaching the problem of materials development. Significantly, the ODA's only major comment on the project processes and products was one advisers' view that it was being conducted at too high a level. He argued that what was really needed was a more basic approach; e.g. the production of syllabuses for use in training heads in financial management (this degree of

specificity was rejected by the project team on the basis of the research findings, as discussed in section 3.2.1).

The perceptions of the user system(s) as to the nature of the innovation and what the project was actually trying to achieve, can only really be surmised. Initial response to the project was generally positive, but it was clearly construed in different ways. One question which it is of interest to explore is that concerning the assumed intrinsic value and benefit of the project both in terms of its processes and products. The problems encountered in implementing the materials workshop in Kenya help throw some light on the issues involved, as the following extract from research officers' Kenya report illustrates:-

The mounting of a mini-course/workshop of this nature requires a considerable degree of commitment from those involved. It is difficult to see how this can be gained unless the total concept of the workshop (preparation + mini-course + evaluation + materials development), is 'sold' by those in authority in the countries involved. Given current attitudes to aid in Kenya, it is very difficult to expect that a strategy which is perceived as involving the imposition of an 'outside' solution will have much success. This was certainly the case with our workshop - the project was perceived as being a 'research' and 'materials evaluation' project rather than as a mutually beneficial materials development and training exercise - despite attempts to convince those involved otherwise. Furthermore, the view of some trainers and academics is that the benefits they might gain from some involvement in a external project must be more than purely an opportunity for their own 'professional development' and/or organisational development (e.g. improved trainer expertise and materials development strategies). The alternative is some form of incentive payment, however undesirable this may be thought to be (December, 1985).

The fundamental point which this extract illustrates is that in formulating the project strategy, inadequate attention was given to the costs (real and opportunity) and

benefits of the innovation to the partners (users). This factor loomed large in Kenya and adversely influenced or interacted with other factors such as perceived relevance of the innovation (and thus the project itself). This in turn had a major bearing on the degree of success of the innovation in the country.

The question which the project sought to address through the Kenya evaluation workshop and those held in other countries, was whether the innovatory training materials and methods were relevant, appropriate and useable. In respect of these, the evaluation workshop in Sri Lanka suggested that trainers with a predominantly didactic approach encounter difficulties in utilising materials which require a more participatory approach and that without support for implementation the project materials and thus the project would have limited impact. A similar set of conclusions were drawn from the Kenyan workshop:-

Most trainers encounter difficulties in utilising materials which incorporate an approach which is new to them - their existing training methodology repertoire does not equip them to meet the new demands being made on them. There is clearly a need for trainers/lecturers to undergo some form of staff development/training programme themselves. It may even be difficult for them to recognise their own limitations, and to see that something different is required of them. The Kenya trainers argued that they were used to using group participative methods, but it was evident that on the whole they lacked a true understanding of the role of the trainer and the strategies which can be employed to facilitate group learning.

The evidence from the workshops suggested that the nature of the innovation itself was also problematic for other contextual reasons. The package makes considerable demands on trainers, which few are likely to rise to without institutional support in terms of preparation time and resources. Moreover, the package of materials is for use on in-service courses and each unit requires at least a day and a half. Few INSET courses in Third World training



institutions are designed to devote more than one or two hours to a particular 'topic'. Most curriculum are heavily overloaded with an emphasis on providing trainees with knowledge and facts which it is felt will equip them to be more effective managers. This content-orientation, together with an emphasis on meeting quantitative system demands may militate against the wider use of materials such as those presented by the project.

It was recognised by the change agent that the innovation was unlikely to be used as presented and that take-up would be improved if the package was perceived as an example for local adaptation. However, this in itself required project inputs, and a critical problem was that the project was not in a position to provide the necessary support for implementing the innovation throughout the network let alone beyond it, except in those countries in which workshops were run. Even in the workshop countries the support was very transient and didn't meet the needs for on-going training to sustain the implementation process.

There was nothing very novel in identifying 'lack of support for implementation' as being a crucial issue in the innovation process; it parallels findings from curriculum development projects the world over. It did however raise serious questions about the overall project strategy, suggesting as it did that a key issue was the need to provide greater attention to training the trainers. This will be examined further in section 4.3.2.

#### The user system - participating institutions

A number of assumptions were made about the user system (the Third World educational management training systems, their institutions and trainers), with respect to their characteristics and their receptiveness to involvement with an innovatory project such as ITWEAMM. The difficulty was that the user system had to be defined at the start of the project in order to canvass participation, but it was not fully understood until research was well underway. At which point, certain assumptions needed to be re-assessed, the most significant of which, as has already been noted, was the change agent's (i.e. the project team) initial

belief that there was some commonality of needs. Moreover, the user system which was established consisted of both university training providers and Ministry of Education agency providers. The former are usually (but not always) concerned with pre-service provision, and the latter with in-service provision. The problem was thus compounded by a further and potentially incompatible set of needs. Indeed, it might be argued that these fundamental misconceptions seriously undermined the project strategy because it also brought into focus the question as to whether any consensus existed amongst users about the nature of the problems being addressed and their possible solution.

The literature on educational innovation commonly draws attention to the importance of fully appreciating the complexity of the user system. Issues include: the extent to which individuals are free to choose whether or not to adopt an innovation; the fact that people respond differently to innovation; the characteristics of innovative organisations; and so forth. An examination of the nature of the user system helps to identify those factors which will contribute to success or otherwise. Moreover, the user system perspective on educational innovation highlights that not only are there major internal system variables which affect the process but also contextual variables.

The project experiences in different countries would certainly corroborate many of these conclusions. A few points of particular significance will be noted here in order to help bring into focus the major lessons deriving from the project.

A particular set of operational problems, derived from users' perception of the project strategy and status. The project was described as a research and materials development project. But it might be that had it been possible for the project to adopt a technical assistance concept or at least play down the research role, relations with the user system would have been a lot simpler. Thus had members of the project team been seen as advisers and training resource persons for national staff rather than as researchers, the project itself would have been perceived and received more in terms of assistance (solution-giving,

problem-solving or catalyst) than research (taking).

The problem manifested itself most particularly when it came to arranging field visits and the question of clearance arose. It was also evident in the rather negative reception given to the project research officer by Ministry officials in Kenya. However, it might also be indicative of a wider set of issues surrounding the politics of the donor-recipient relationship in aid. As has been noted elsewhere (e.g. Unesco, UNDP, 1976), a number of governments have become or are becoming allergic to nearly all expatriate expertise.

The significance of such contextual factors to project success is very real; environmental forces outside the immediate TIWEAMM project context created opportunities for as well as constraints upon its operation. Thus whilst the project design paid particular attention to the immediate context of educational management training in the Third World, analysing the problems of training both in terms of policy issues and institutional developments and with respect to training design, it gave little attention to wider political, economic, socio-cultural and technological features of the environment.

Most significant of these are the prevailing political conditions and the local institutional and bureaucratic set-ups. Thus it was certainly the case that the reason the project operated successfully in Sri Lanka, was due in no large part to the fact that senior Ministry officials were apparently supportive of the projects' aims and approaches. This in turn was influenced to a large extent by the fact that there were good personal links between the project and the British Council, (who were instrumental in mobilising interest and gaining acceptance for project visits) and between them and the Ministry.

The final point to make about the user system concerns the issue raised earlier about the utilisation of innovative project materials and the need for support for implementation. In Sri Lanka there were notable differences in the way in which individual trainers responded to the materials. In part this was influenced by their own willingness to adopt more innovative methods, and in part it reflected their ability to do so; hence the diagnosis that

training the trainers was of crucial importance. However there are also additional influencing factors, or conditions of acceptance within the user system, both external and internal. These include: personnel policies (training, certification, salary, career structures etc.) prevailing professional norms, the training/learning culture, and overall attitudes towards innovation in general and the transfer of western originated innovations in particular.

Innovation is a dynamic social process, involving complex interactions between systems and sub-systems; such complexities are multiplied when, as was the case with the ITWEAMM project, the cross-cultural dimension needs to be taken into consideration.

#### 4.3.2 OVERALL CONCLUSIONS ON THE PROJECT STRATEGY

A strategy, by definition, involves choices and decisions concerning aims, objectives, inputs, processes, etc... The overall purpose of the ITWEAMM project was to attempt to bring about changes and improvements to Third World educational management training through research and the development and introduction of training methods and materials. In theory an alternative strategy or mix of strategies might have been adopted for assisting in training development. However options such as direct training of trainers or institutional development were not available because of the way the project was set up and funded as a research project. The advantages and disadvantages of the alternative strategies will be discussed in the final chapter, the purpose of this chapter has been to critically examine the strategy which was adopted (materials development) in terms of project formulation, design and implementation. The main points will be summarised below.

A major shortcoming with the project was the lack of appreciation of the nature of the undertaking in relation to the existing milieu of Third World educational management training. The limited success of the project can be attributed to its inability to respond adequately when assumptions underpinning its aims, structure and processes were questioned. Demonstrations of this were the inability to reconcile conflicting perceptions of the nature of the

problem and possible solutions and to deal with the question of whose needs and whose benefits.

A related problem concerned the status of the project. Its research status would suggest that a starting point of problem identification and elaboration would provide a foundation for project design. As it was the latter was largely pre-determined, in so far as materials development was the proposed solution, and there was thus limited opportunity for adopting a flexible range of approaches. Equally, the means for implementing the project strategy were undermined by the research tag; project interventions would have been easier had the project been seen in the broader concept of technical assistance.

A further point concerns project design. Examination of the project infrastructure suggested that the initiator was somewhat limited in terms of overall choice of operational strategy. The project design was to a large extent pre-determined by resource constraints and the nature of the funding and its management. There was evidently some lack of communication on these issues; clarification as to precisely what was and was not acceptable in ODA terms would have enabled a more flexible strategy to be adopted.

Another obvious shortcoming was the failure or inability to fully exploit the concept of the network of participants to ensure a truly participative process. It was evident that establishing and maintaining the network required more in terms of identifying suitable collaborators and ensuring adequate communication than had been envisaged.

Yet another area where difficulties arose is linked to the above points and concerns the question of the provision of incentives to those whom the project wished to call on for assistance as information providers and in materials trialling exercises. The restrictions involved in way the project was funded appeared to be in conflict with a possible solution to this problem.

A further source of difficulty stemming both from the nature of the funding and from the way in which the project was conceptualised, was that it was funded as a research project with the aim of materials development, but the funding and mechanism for materials publication and

dissemination were omitted. Inclusion of these might have improved the credibility of the project in some quarters, and would certainly have enabled the project to follow its strategy through to ensure more extensive diffusion.

Finally, a more fundamental problem surrounded the whole question of the feasibility of a western based project team adopting a materials development strategy to tackle a Third World problem. Assuming some degree of commonality and consensus in such a complex and diverse field and suggesting a packaged solution has been a major weakness in many international initiatives. The project would undoubtedly have had more impact if greater attention had been paid to the fact that it involved a cross-cultural innovation process; indeed the project suffered through lack of attention to the sorts of factors which have often been raised in the literature about educational innovation in general and materials development strategies in particular.

In analysing the project the discussion has tended to focus on the problems encountered, in the hope that a critical examination would help highlight the lessons which the project offers. However, the writer would certainly argue that the project had strengths alongside its weaknesses. In the absence of any overall evaluation effort there is no clear evidence of success, however the project certainly generated a lot of interest and favourable comments and despite some difficulties the workshops were on the whole stimulating and lively events. It is possible that in the long term the project may be better known for its contribution to professional development than as a materials development strategy.

In sum, it is probably too early to say what positive influence, if any, the innovatory project has had or will have. However, the overall conclusions suggest a number of criteria for success in materials development initiatives. These are summarised in the final chapter, which will address the more specific questions concerning the project strategy in relation to alternatives, and synthesise lessons from this and other fields in order to reach conclusions concerning strategies of international assistance to educational management training in the Third World.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SYNTHESIS AND CONCLUSIONS**

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The final chapter synthesises the lessons from international assistance to Third World educational development in general and to educational management training in particular. It draws on the literature review and the case study, considers the advantages and disadvantages of alternative strategies and concludes with a series of propositions concerning those factors likely to contribute to the success of initiatives in this area.

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#### **5.1 STRATEGIES TO INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION**

##### **5.1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE SYNTHESIS**

In order to draw together and synthesise the lessons from experience, the frameworks introduced in Chapter One will be used. These identified the range of strategies deployed, and the persons involved in international assistance to educational management training. It was explained that the notion of strategy, as used in this thesis, concerns the operational level - the alternative means adopted to effect improvement to Third World educational management training. The strategies were initially grouped in three categories: training provision, institution building and developing national training capacities to improve the quality of in-country training provision. These strategies were further explored through the literature review and a more useful categorisation of overlapping groups of strategies can now be suggested.

INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT: a package of efforts including capital assistance for institution building together with some or all of the components below:-

REGIONAL TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION

OVERSEAS TRAINING/STUDY FELLOWSHIPS

IN-COUNTRY TRAINING AND PROVISION OF 'EXPERTS'

RESEARCH AND INFORMATION EXCHANGE

CURRICULUM AND MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

It was further argued (following King, 1986), that the success of strategic decision-making will need to be addressed at four levels. These were described as:

INTERNATIONAL-POLITICAL  
INTERNATIONAL-PROFESSIONAL  
NATIONAL-POLITICAL  
LOCAL-PROFESSIONAL

People operating at these levels will have different perspectives on the relative merits of alternative strategies, reflecting their diverse perceptions of the nature of the priority area and possible solutions to its problems. The extent to which they can influence decisions on the formulation, design and implementation of strategies will obviously vary. Moreover, each of the 'groups' is not homogeneous, either within countries or across agencies and countries.

#### 5.1.2 A SUMMARY OF LESSONS FROM THIRD WORLD EXPERIENCE

The review of the literature in Chapter Two highlighted many critical issues surrounding the training of Third World educational managers and those in public administration and management. A number of recent initiatives were noted in these and other related areas, exemplifying a range of alternative strategies of international assistance to educational development. This section will use the framework outlined above to draw together the key findings and concerns, and the main lessons from the documented experience.

##### Institutional development

Multilateral agencies such as the UN, Unesco, the World Bank, the ILO, the Ford Foundation, and many bilateral agencies, have extensive experience in providing capital and technical assistance in institutional development in education and training. However, whilst there has been considerable critical analysis of initiatives in the public administration and management training field, there is little to date concerning the more recent activities in educational management training. The lessons from the former sectors do however have implications for the latter



and some of these are presented below, together with a few issues which are beginning to emerge from recent initiatives for strengthening educational management training institutions.

It is not easy to demonstrate the impact of international assistance on strengthening public administration and management training. Moreover, perceptions on activities in this area vary. Some analyses have been highly critical of what are viewed as dominant-dependent donor-recipient relationships, covert influences, cultural imperialism, and wholesale transfer of systems and institutions. Donors are seen as aiming to replicate in Third World settings their own organisational practices, professional activities and criteria of academic excellence. The Ford Foundation's management training institution building initiatives in India have been cited as an example of this. Other critiques have questioned the motives of recipients as well, and suggested that improved management effectiveness (through training institution development) may be against the interests of the bureaucratic elites.

Donor agencies are increasingly sensitive to these dangers, and are drawing on past experience to improve their institutional development efforts. Thus Unesco is now shifting towards strategies that provide expertise in more specific rather than general skills, and through short term rather than long term assignments of experts. In addition, increasing emphasis is given to supporting regional efforts, technical co-operation among developing countries and twinning. It is also felt that project design in institutional development needs to pay particular attention to the capacity of governments to meet the investment and recurrent costs involved. This will include ensuring that provision be made in the project and in follow-up projects for essential equipment, supplies and materials (transport, petrol, paper, maintenance and spare parts) to render the institutional development objectives attainable.

The ILO is also encouraging regional, sub-regional and inter-regional cooperation among management development institutions. In addition, past experience suggests the importance of strengthening the institutional framework for

policy making, planning, and research, and improving the performance and impact of training programmes through the preparation of essential materials.

The most significant lesson concerns the overall pattern of international assistance. Strategies for institutional development have been fragmented and lacking in coherence. The experience of the World Bank is that each of the various institutional development components is vulnerable. Thus the strategy of providing experts has been problem-ridden with respect to costs, lack of good counterparts and delays in their appointment, and neglect of training roles, etc. Assistance to building programmes has been valuable but the requirements are often underestimated. Fellowship programmes have been absent or scarce, poorly taken-up and ineffectively exploited. These problems highlight the importance of greater co-ordination of efforts among donor agencies in the field of public administration and management development.

There are similar problems in the educational management training sector. However, it is still too early to make any overall assessment of the impact and the lessons to be derived from international assistance. The major initiative has been the funding of specialised institutes by the World Bank. The agency has supported five institutions, three in East Asia and two in East Africa, primarily through project loans for capital assistance (for buildings and facilities) and with some technical assistance to finance experts and training/study fellowships. The latter have been put out to tender and have been handled by a variety of agencies including the British Council. The following observations have been made on these projects:

The performances of the institutions are strikingly different. MESTI in Malaysia is well established. But the start up of IDEA in Thailand has experienced considerable delays; mainly because of cool receptivity from a few members of the educational bureaucracy on the amount and nature of technical assistance required for the center. The experience in East Africa has been the same. The KESI in Kenya has shown remarkable progress even though it is operating

from its temporary location. The MANTEP in Tanzania has suffered from organisational and staffing limitations and faulty project design.... The efficiency of MANTEP has progressively worsened, due to uncertainties of its placement within the organisation structure of the MOE; its remoteness from the capital, which has enhanced flight of qualified staff; and the absence of an independent budget. Because of this, a Bank supervision concluded in 1981, that Government should give serious consideration to change the present location of MANTEP (World Bank, 1985, p. 50).

This report provides no detailed discussion nor comparison of the precise strategies adopted in each country which might throw some light on why there are such differences between the five projects. Rather, a proposal is made for an analysis of the features of the institutions themselves (targets, training approaches, programmes and status) as a means of identifying factors contributing towards success.

One factor suggested in the World Bank report is KESI and MESTI's collaboration with institutes of public administration for sharing training experience. Certainly such linkages can provide valuable opportunities for sharing experiences in institutional development. However, it seems to the present writer (through overseas field visits and contacts with visiting faculty members in the UK) that the lessons which might be derived from the development of institutes of public administration and management (as highlighted in section 2.4.1), are not yet being systematically applied to educational management training.

It must be acknowledged that these new institutes are recent developments, and much of the assistance in this area is not in the form of a specific institutional development package. More frequently it consists of ad hoc workshops and training courses, visiting specialists, regional meetings and the provision of overseas fellowships; strategies which are considered in the appropriate sections below. The further exception to this somewhat piecemeal international support (alongside the above mentioned World

Bank activities) are Unesco's regional efforts at institutional development which are discussed in the next section.

### Regional technical co-operation

Technical co-operation among developing countries is a major feature of Unesco's regional initiatives in enhancing and strengthening national training capacities in educational planning and management through institutional and personnel development. Details of these are presented in Annex 1. A few salient features are identified here.

Unesco has established various regional networks in Asia, Africa, the Arab States, the Caribbean and South-East Europe (APEID, NEIDA, EPIDAS, CARNEID, CODIESE - see glossary) with the aim of improving the internal efficiency of education systems by the consolidation and extension of educational research, and promoting sub-regional co-operative programmes for educational innovation. Large-scale Unesco-UNDP projects have been implemented through the Unesco Regional Offices for Education in Asia and the Pacific (Roeap) and in Africa (Breda). In Asia, the project has focused on the development of distance teaching training materials, the preparation of key training personnel through inter-country co-operation, and the exchange and field testing of materials.

In Africa, there is a comparable Unesco-UNDP project, COFORPA, concerned with developing the capacity for training and research in the region. This is complemented by the programme 'Training of Trainers in Educational Management for Some English-Speaking African Countries', funded in 1986 by SIDA and executed by Unesco with a project base in Kenya. Significantly, it takes into account the existing training institutions within the region by aiming to provide training for trainers nominated by the countries themselves, together with support for national training provision.

The concept of regional technical co-operation is also upheld by other agencies, more usually multilateral donors rather than bilateral donors. The strategy also manifests itself in the activities of certain non-governmental and inter-governmental organisations. For example the

Commonwealth Secretariat has over the years supported many regional training courses, seminars and conferences on aspects of educational management and administration. A recent concern has been to facilitate the establishment of a Commonwealth Regional Training Programme for Educational Administration in the Caribbean. The rationale is that international assistance should facilitate certain national institutes to serve sub-regional or regional training needs, in accordance with appropriate inter-governmental decisions. This is an alternative to regional institutions internationally owned and managed, which have had a mixed track record. For example in Africa, the regional universities of East Africa have broken under the stress of centrifugal national policies, questions of control and financial authority and the overwhelming difficulty of getting the specific political agreement necessary to finalise projects.

Regional technical co-operation is generally felt to be a valuable and successful approach, allowing initiatives which are more responsive to Third World needs and priorities than are the more distant donor headquarter initiative. Activities can focus on the specific needs of participants and their countries, and there is more likely to be commonality of problems at the regional level than at the international level. Regional gatherings provide valuable opportunities to share experiences and information across national boundaries. Furthermore, such a strategy may be justified on cost grounds in that the educational initiatives benefit more than one country.

While the strategy is widely advocated, there appear to be few assessments of its overall contribution to educational development. In the educational management sphere, an evaluation workshop was held in 1983 to assess aspects of Unesco Roep's Regional Technical Co-operation Project. This was of the view that while the immediate objectives of the project had been achieved to the level of satisfaction of the participating countries, the impact on strengthening national capacities was only catalytic and the activities needed to be continued. In particular, the training capabilities in the institutions involved require

further strengthening.

One problem with such projects concerns the nature of participation. Governments are usually invited to appoint representatives to attend regional activities and there is no guarantee that the most appropriate person will attend (in terms of making a significant contribution to the countries' educational management training development). This may be circumvented in part by requiring some advance report preparation by potential participants, a mechanism frequently employed by Unesco.

Another concern is that while regionalism may help alleviate Third World dependency on the 'northern aid framework', regional groupings, like international groupings, have dominant members and cultures. The assumption that there are strong cross-cultural commonalities in regions needs some scrutiny - the current political conflicts in various regions of the world suggest otherwise.

Nevertheless, it is evident that many regional initiatives and events are positively viewed by participants. Most reports of meetings and conferences endorse recommendations for further regional activities. Frequently this includes the need for more regional training. There are however, still many unresolved questions about regional training including: What should be the nature of the training? Where should it take place? and, Within what institutional/regional infrastructure? These are just some of the issues, others can be highlighted through a discussion of overseas training in general.

#### Overseas training

International assistance in the form of fellowships for overseas training is a popular strategy for promoting institutional and personnel development. With regard to strengthening educational management, a key concern is the training of the trainers and training managers to develop national capability in this area. However overseas training in this area has so far largely concentrated on the direct training of educational managers. Assessment of this strategy has been limited, but some conclusions can be drawn through an examination of more general studies and reviews

of training aid. But first, a few specific comments.

The major overseas training provider in this field is the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), established by Unesco in 1963 to conduct training courses for educational planners. Internal evaluation of this provision has been positive (IIEP, 1980), and tracer studies suggest that most trainees still work in educational planning and management (80 per cent according to a tracer study carried out in 1973). The courses are non-theoretical, with close links being established between research and training and a strong emphasis being given to meeting the demands and needs of practitioners through the adoption of practical methods.

IIEP faces difficulties on a number of fronts (as the present Director explained at a seminar held at the University of London Institute of Education in March 1987). These concern the criteria for the selection of trainees, decisions on appropriate course content, and methodology. Moreover, the demand is enormous, partly because of Unesco's strategic decision that less direct training provision should be provided by its regional centres. Increasing attention is therefore being given to the preparation of training teams at regional and local levels. IIEP has also recently adopted a split programme which encourages attachment at a Unesco Regional Centre linked to some practical in-country field work. With the latter, there are logistical problems in ensuring that trainees are given full release from their every-day work to enable them to devote adequate time to independent studies.

In general, the provision of such split or joint programmes of training is increasingly favoured by a number of bilateral agencies, including the ODA. The strategy might involve parts of a programme of study being arranged in an overseas country, or a third country, to complement in-country studies. Third country training, it is argued, helps increase relevance and builds up regional co-operation (as discussed earlier). But it is not always favoured, not least because a western university still has more glamour than an African or Asian institution. One example of third country training for educational management trainers and

personnel is the Unesco fellowships for Sri Lankans (and individuals from other Asian countries) to attend courses at the well-established National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) in India. Reception by participants to this provision has been mixed, a major complaint being the ethnocentricity of the programmes; a complaint which is familiar for educational management courses in the western institutions.

The responsibility for the problems involved in overseas training lie with all parties involved in the transaction. Thus multilateral agencies have found that fellowships are sometimes not taken up because the borrower is not fully committed to hire, and later train required staff, or is unwilling to release staff for training because resulting vacancies will remain unfilled. On the other hand, qualified candidates often prefer to forego fellowships because they may be unable to draw a salary for family upkeep, if their position is filled.

There is often a mis-match between courses and candidates. This may be due to lack of clear specification of training objectives by employees, or poor agency administration, but western institutions are also to blame in this respect. In the present climate of institutional cost-consciousness, departments running courses for overseas students need to ensure viable student numbers and it is tempting to accept unsuitable candidates. This problem can be illustrated through a specific example:

A new short course for educational management trainers in the UK was cancelled. After some negotiation between all parties involved (through the British Council, in-country), the two overseas applicants were placed on a curriculum planning course at the same institution. This helped the course in swelling its numbers and it enabled the two trainees to keep their fellowships which they might otherwise have lost. However, whilst they certainly acquired additional skills in curriculum planning, there was little gain of the specific skills needed for their work in their employing institution (a specialist educational management training institute supported by the World Bank). The issue here is the need to maintain an appropriate



balance between the individuals' and the systems' training needs.

This point arises in many discussions of the training effort (be it overseas or in-country), and particularly those highlighting the problems of personnel transfer. One of the most urgent prerequisites of institutional development is staff development, but this is hampered by the fact that in many countries, civil service personnel are regularly transferred between institutions. Strategies are therefore required to help minimize the resulting loss of expertise (to the institution), and some argue that this issue should be pursued in the context of overall public service needs. This implies that training should be more generic; but even this is debatable as some of the literature reviewed in sections 2.3.2 and 2.4.1 highlights. Moreover, while the generic approach may possibly be appropriate for educational management development, the training of educational management trainers also requires attention to be given to the development of more specific pedagogical skills (training the trainers is further explored below).

Such concerns are also expressed in the more general discussions of overseas training. For example, the major problems which have been highlighted in reviews of British training aid in all sectors, include the criteria for student selection and the overemphasis on high-level skills and generalist perspectives. With regard to the former point, evaluation suggests the need for overseas applicants and their institutions to be more specific in stating their learning/training objectives to help ensure an appropriate match with courses. Recommendations to help alleviate these and other problems include the need for changes in the management of training aid, for greater attention to be given to considering the full spectrum of training alternatives, and for more follow-up support for returning trainees.

The lessons of experience suggest that the strategy of overseas training needs to be more fully scrutinised than hitherto. There is a growing belief that it may be more fruitful to relate training more closely to aid projects,

and to emphasis training for specific purposes on carefully selected or tailor-made shorter courses, often tied to institutional links to promote the strengthening of indigenous training facilities. In many instances, it may be more profitable to provide in-country training and to help and encourage governments to develop and co-ordinate in-country training. The importance of training the trainers is thus a crucial element in educational management training development.

Training the trainers is still a rather ill-defined concept, and quite how it should be undertaken is, as IIEP is finding, a conundrum; there are many unresolved questions concerning the balance between process and content, between developing pedagogical skills and technical skills. One view is that since well focused training of educational managers will have a multiplier-effect, this is one means of training a group of trainers. Thus a currently popular term in both western educational management training circles and in some Third World countries is the 'cascade system'. However, as has been succinctly observed, all too often those at the bottom of the cascade barely get wet. The complexities of the training/learning process require something more systematic than this rather nebulous idea that training techniques will somehow brush off on students and turn them into trainers. Growing recognition of this is reflected in the increasing attention being given to more formal approaches to training the trainers, be it through overseas training strategies or in-country training strategies.

#### In-country training and the provision of 'experts'

Technical assistance for in-country training provision can take a variety of forms. For example, ODA mechanisms include support for trainees at a local institution as part of a training fellowship scheme, assistance for specialist courses at an existing institution, and the provision of specialists to mount short in-country education seminars and workshops. In addition, many agencies support experts on assignments of varying lengths of time, either through a direct contract or as employees of institutions in the

recipient country with salary supplementation. There is also the provision of short term consultative services some of which may include both advisory and training roles.

A number of shifts in donor policies have occurred in recent years. In particular there has been an increase in in-country training (as against overseas training) and in project-related training, and a reduction of long-term expatriate provision. As already noted, Unesco has moved from funding long-term assignments to shorter, more highly specialised and more precisely timed interventions. This is felt to be a more successful strategy and to contribute more effectively to institutional development than did the previous pattern. Short-term assignments by appropriate specialists do not replace national staff but tend to promote their knowledge and in-service training. Increasingly these short term assignments focus on organising and conducting training programmes (or seminars and workshops) for senior staff in service.

Overall assessments of the impact of such strategies and the factors contributing towards success is complicated by the fact that the in-country workshop or visiting expert may be only one part of a broader effort. Equally, the actual procedures adopted in implementing the strategies varies from one agency to another. However, with regard to the provision of experts, the experience of multilateral agencies suggests that factors contributing towards success for longer-term assignments include: in the first instance, a proper assessment of the needs for technical assistance and clarification of the terms of reference; the existence of qualified counterparts; co-operative relationship between experts and country team members; maximum use of local specialists; the availability of funds for local office operations; and a willingness to collaborate closely with bilateral aid agencies in the field.

Some of the lessons from the experience of British bilateral technical assistance in general can be gleaned from an analysis of ODA evaluation reports. A synthesis of Findings from these (ODA, 1983) suggests that in deploying technical assistance, greater attention should be given to: associating manpower and training aid with capital

assistance; ensuring flexibility in project design and management; clarifying who actually benefits; instituting better monitoring of aid; maintaining continuity of ODA personnel in projects; weighing up alternatives carefully; taking a broader view of the field; and attending to social factors.

One further, and fundamental issue concerns the totality of aid's impact on national training provision. There is a danger that with the current proliferation of activities in this area, training aid (both local and overseas), is lacking coherence. It is hard to keep track of its scale and diversity, let alone ensure that it contributes to a proper plan for institutional development. The irony is that this is at a time when much lip service is being given to the importance of coherent national training policies and the integration of fragmented training. As King asks: "once all the initiatives of the donors have been added together... what is left of the training policy of the ministry itself?" (King, 1986, p. 123).

This is certainly a risk in the educational management training field where there is currently widespread donor enthusiasm for strengthening educational management training. The lack of integration may well diminish the contribution of any particular strategy. Indeed the proliferation of programmes is such that visiting experts supported by different donors encounter each other in institutional corridors unaware of the existence of the others' programmes.

#### Research studies and information exchange

This is a rather nebulous group of strategies, and the amount of international assistance solely focused on research and information exchange is small and generally part of a larger aid package. In the educational management field there is certainly a vital need for research in support of training. This is beginning to take place, in some instances through donor support. For example, as part of its programme of direct funding of African researchers, Canada's International Development Research Centre (IDRC) has supported a Liberian project focusing on educational

administrators' training needs. Unesco has also been instrumental in encouraging countries to undertake training needs analyses, frequently as a prerequisite for a subsequent regional workshop.

More usually international assistance to research in education is directed towards the solution or illumination of problems of special interest in the aid programme, to guide future policy, or to contribute to other initiatives. Thus the thesis case study was funded by the ODA out of their research budget and originally seen as being a contribution to improving UK based educational management training for overseas students. (In reality it turned out somewhat differently as has been discussed in Chapters Three and Four.)

An earlier ODA-funded project, more in line with policy-oriented research, and particularly pertinent to a discussion of strategy, was the INSET-Africa project. Its aims were to survey INSET in Africa and provide an information base for decisions concerning the most appropriate strategies for INSET provision. As such the target audience was policy-makers and agencies responsible for INSET, as well as the international community at large. Details of the project are given in Annex 1, but a few interesting features will be mentioned here. It was a collaborative venture, whereby a national researcher was appointed in each country and paid a modest honorarium and research expenses. The research team met to decide strategy and to debate findings, and were constantly consulted by the Bristol-based project co-ordinator. Significantly, there was an add-on element to this research project, in which the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) funded two dissemination conferences and the publication of their report.

Publication and dissemination of reports is an important contribution to promoting information exchange. Unesco's documentation distribution policy is noteworthy, some would say notorious in respect of the sheer amount of documentation produced! However, information dissemination rather than direct implementation of policy is a major feature of Unesco's role, and the agency (internationally

and regionally) has been instrumental in promoting the exchange of information and ideas in the educational management field. One recent example of this is the production of an inventory on relevant documents in the Asian region published by Unesco, Roead (Mellor, 1984).

Information exchange is also a major feature of the Commonwealth Secretariat's activities in the educational management training field, most notably through the publication of reports of conferences and collections of materials. The latter have been generated through the activities of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA) which is a non governmental association partly funded by the Commonwealth Foundation. The CCEA has an on-going programme of activities including the publication of a quarterly newsletter and a monograph series. These are important vehicles for the exchange of ideas amongst Third World academics, trainers and practitioners, but there is still a great need for more widespread publication of articles deriving from Third World experience in educational management. One constraining factor is the lack of support (time and money) for writing and, where necessary, support for translation. These are fundamental concerns when considering curriculum and materials development strategies.

#### Curriculum and materials development

A key requirement for improving the quality of educational management training is the development of new curricula and materials. International assistance in this area is relatively new, and other than a few exceptions, including the case study project, it is more usually part of a wider package of technical assistance for institutional development. Projects concerned with the development of educational management training materials include the Unesco/EPP Training Materials Project, the activities undertaken by the Unesco regional office in Bangkok to develop self-instructional teaching materials and the documents produced by the Commonwealth Secretariat for the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration. These initiatives are summarised in Annex 1. A few observations

can be made about the Unesco strategies.

The Unesco/EPP project is concerned with developing training materials in educational planning administration and facilities. A key idea was to promote closer collaboration in training activities and the co-ordinated development of materials between Unesco headquarters, regions and IIEP. The strategy adopted involved the use of nationals from both industrialised and developing countries as materials writers (working to prepared guidelines), the production and translation of the materials (Spanish, French and English), and their distribution and testing. The project consists of 17 titles each produced in the three languages, although not all are presently available due to delays in translation and production. Portuguese and Arabic versions are also planned.

The project is co-ordinated from Paris, and it is evident from verbal comments by Unesco staff and from progress reports, (Unesco, EPP, 1986) that the strategy has encountered a number of procedural problems. One difficulty concerns the co-ordination of a geographically dispersed materials writing team, with problems in ensuring that deadlines are met and in maintaining some form of quality control. Another significant problem has been the "relative failure of our cooperation with the Regional Offices and the IIEP (which is difficult to analyse since the reasons were never very outspoken)". Confronted with this, and continual delays and/or paucity of regional contributions, the decision was taken to reduce the project and count only on EPP's own staff and financial resources.

The overall evaluation effort currently being attempted, has also presented problems. The materials have been disseminated (free of charge), to over 250 recipients. Unesco invited co-operation from user institutions providing them with a two part evaluation questionnaire to comment on the scope and content of the project materials and to feed back data from field trials of individual titles. Initial response was poor (eleven replies to Part 1, and three replies to Part 2) and it was decided to select a few institutions with whom to conduct evaluation exercises. A Unesco staff member/consultant would help prepare and run

course(s) based on the material and a modest financial contribution (US\$ 2,000-4,000) would be made as an incentive for the national organisers; to date two such exercises have been mounted (in Botswana and Australia). Findings from these include: positive comments on style of presentation, setting of objectives, the comprehensiveness of the material, and negative mentions of the lack of general applicability of the techniques treated, insufficient numbers of practical examples and exercises, poor illustrative material, and the need for exercises involving national data.

The above points draw attention to important factors which need to be taken into account with any materials development strategy which is operating co-operatively at a distance; namely, the need for well thought out mechanisms for gaining and maintaining the commitment and co-operation of the participants. It is however somewhat suprising that Unesco,EPP encountered difficulties in exploiting the regional Unesco network. It suggests that there are considerable advantages to be gained by operating within the region itself, as in Unesco's Asian regional project.

The Unesco regional materials development project is part of the more extensive Unesco-UNDP inter-country project to develop training capability in the Asian and Pacific Region (as already discussed). The aim is to develop training materials and prepare key training personnel through inter-country co-operation in pooling experiences and expertise and the development, exchange and field testing of materials. Distance teaching materials consisting of seven books under the title, Basic Training Programme in Educational Planning and Management, have been widely used in the region (and elsewhere) with distribution to date of over 750 copies - an indication of the effectiveness of Unesco's distribution policy. Additional modules have also been developed.

Four major points can be made about this strategy. Firstly, materials development is clearly linked with other strategies of international assistance for strengthening educational management training. Secondly, the initiative involves extensive Unesco support and contact over a period of time, with considerable regional exchange to help



maintain continuity and promote commitment from Ministries and institutions involved. Thirdly, involvement in a materials writing workshop requires prior preparation by the participant(s). Finally, the emphasis lies in developing materials to meet local needs. The materials have been widely tested, which has involved trialling of drafts at in-country workshops in six countries in the region and subsequent modification to suit local requirements. In three countries there has been support for translation.

A workshop which was held to evaluate the impact of this multi-faceted project considered it to have contributed towards the development of staff in the training institutions in the region. However, it was suggested that for the projects' developmental objectives to be fully realized, the processes of materials development and inter-country co-operation set up under the Project would need to be continued further and should include the training of distance materials writers and support for materials translation and dissemination.

A more detailed examination of the Unesco strategies is not possible in the absence of any summative evaluation reports. However, it is evident that some of the unresolved questions surrounding these initiatives, are similar to those which have been raised in relation to international assistance for curriculum and materials development activities in other areas.

One point of particular importance, when considering Third World curriculum and materials development projects, concerns the transfer or cross-cultural issue. Thus international assistance for Third World school curriculum development has often involved, at least in the immediate post-independence period, the transfer of innovations (ideas, knowledge, materials, processes) across nations and cultures, without undue questioning. Recent analyses have drawn attention to the problems inherent in these processes of curriculum change. Similarly in the international public administration and management education field, critiques have questioned the relevance of management and practice developed in a western, urban, industrial setting, and the appropriateness of western training processes. These

concerns are beginning to be raised in relation to educational management training.

One of the major lessons learnt over the last decade concerning curriculum and materials development activities, is that any attempt to introduce materials, which embody a particularly innovative teaching/learning approach, must take into account that successful implementation will require some sort of behavioural change in the user (the teacher or trainer). It cannot be assumed that the trainer will be a passive recipient and implementer of training models, training curricula and packages developed by specialists elsewhere. Furthermore, there is no such thing as trainer-proof materials, indeed it is highly likely that materials will need to be adopted by the user. Therefore, in considering the development and dissemination of new materials it is important to look carefully at the conditions which might facilitate implementation and adaptation, and to devise plans for support accordingly.

In sum, the lesson from such analyses is that there are still many unresolved questions concerning cross-cultural influences and the processes of curriculum and materials development. It follows therefore, that considerable caution is required in assisting Third World countries in curriculum and materials development. These concerns, together with the issues raised concerning other strategies, provide a useful framework against which to summarise the lessons from the case study.

### 5.1.3 A SUMMARY OF LESSONS FROM THE CASE STUDY

#### The major lessons

The ODA-funded research project 'Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials', adopted a strategy of research and materials development to contribute towards improving the quality of Third World educational management training provision. The previous chapter has critically examined the project experiences, outlining the difficulties encountered and discussing the major project shortcomings. Several factors were noted as to why performance was less than expected. Some were concerned with project formulation and design and others

with implementation. The major concern here is to identify the key lessons that emerge from this project concerning the materials development strategy.

The major lesson offered by the project concerns strategy formulation: the importance of clarifying a project's strategy in terms of its proposed role and objectives, and carefully examining underlying assumptions. ITWEAMM's main assumptions - commonality of Third World needs and the potential of the initiative for solving these needs - were questionable, and there was confusion as to whether the project's emphasis was research (exploring these propositions) or materials development.

In pursuing the latter, it was found, not suprisingly, that materials development is unlikely to make any major contribution to education management training improvement without very careful attention being given to a wide range of inter-related contextual, pedagogical and utilisation factors. Contextual questions which need to be addressed include: What is the role and status of potential user institutions in educational management training? What is the nature (scope, quality, quantity and effect) of their present provision? What are the main characteristics of the indigenous educational management culture? What are the training needs of educational management personnel? Questions concerning pedagogy include: What is known about the appropriateness of alternative training content, methods and techniques in different contexts? Which processes of learning are common across cultures and which are culture-specific? Utilisation questions include: Do institutions and trainers have the capacity to implement new patterns of training? What are the likely personal and institutional determinants of materials take-up?

With regard to the ITWEAMM strategy, while some of these questions could be explored at least in part, through careful research and survey work, it was evident that no global generalisations can be drawn. Moreover, certain questions (and the above are only illustrative) are far more complex and reflect issues which require considerable further research, and probably indigenous research in-country rather than that which could be undertaken by a

western project team. This therefore suggests that greater consideration might be given to other complementary strategies for improving the capability of training institutions, in the areas of research and evaluation.

Another important lesson derived from the TIWEAMM project relates to strategic design: the importance of integrating such an initiative within its context or contexts. This requires good co-ordination and communication mechanisms and an ability to respond flexibly to meet different responses and demands. Thus, while acknowledging that a materials development project by itself can only be a partial strategy for educational management training improvement, there is still much that can be done to help maximise the impact of project outcomes (materials). There are a number of facets to this.

One important design issue is particularly pertinent to innovatory projects (such as TIWEAMM), devised outside the immediate implementation context. The drawback of many curriculum and materials development projects is that they are frequently top-down strategies, at least in so far as they are conceived and managed by outside 'experts'. A project team working at a considerable distance/remove from its clientele, needs to employ participative mechanisms to attempt to minimise the potentially adverse consequences of the centre-periphery strategy (e.g. lack of local relevance, and poor take-up of the materials). However, in designing project networks it is important to understand the nature of the existing infrastructures, the characteristics of the organisations which will be invited to co-operate, and the consequences for participants of co-operating and possibly adopting innovative roles in using materials. Failure to diagnose prevailing political, economic, socio-cultural and technological norms in the environment can seriously undermine project implementation. One manifestation of this in TIWEAMM was the difficulties encountered in maintaining on-going co-operation in the absence of any provision of support and incentives to participants. It is of interest that even Unesco, EPP, which has recourse to an extensive network, has been less than successful in its materials development strategy. It could just be, as others

have found in school curriculum materials development, that top-down materials development strategies are an ineffective solution to the problem of the paucity of training materials.

There are two related points which can be made about project integration during implementation. The contribution of a materials development strategy is likely to be diminished when it is not integrated or at least in tune with national priorities for promoting improvement in educational management training. Thus where a project parallels, at least in broad terms, Government priorities, local professionals are more willing to give it the indispensable support needed for its success.

A second point concerns the international context and the importance of there being some integration and co-ordination between related activities in the area. The high priority being given to strengthening educational management training by many donors has resulted in a large number of ad hoc initiatives. Whilst donor-donor co-operation is evidently on the increase in most spheres of activity, projects are still rarely complementary. Significantly, discussions were held by the writer with Unesco regional officers in Bangkok with a view to enabling the project to exploit the Unesco regional infrastructure for materials evaluation. This they would have been happy to undertake, had the project been able to fund the country participants. In the event, in Sri Lanka for example, there was some competition for local attention between the two materials development projects (Unesco and ITWEAMM).

The final point concerning project implementation and dissemination is that since the utilisation of new materials has implications for the trainer and the training institution (at least if there is a requirement for additional facilities and changes to prevailing training norms and patterns), materials developers need to give some thought to trainer training needs and institutional support for implementation. In the absence of these, it is highly likely that diffusion will be slow and adoption minimal.

In sum, experience suggests that the impact of a international materials development project on Third World

educational management training improvement will be increased if account is taken of a range of inter-related factors. These are summarised below.

Materials development strategies - from an international perspective

The following list suggests factors contributing to success in international materials development. It illustrates that the findings of the project are by no means unique. They parallel the concerns expressed by those who have studied other innovations and approaches to innovation in education over the years. The list is not a comprehensive summary of success criteria. Rather, it is suggested, the overall contribution of a project will be diminished if factors such as these are ignored. These points are primarily targeted at the international level (political and professional), although some are applicable to the national level. They provide a foundation for the final set of conclusions concerning strategies of international assistance to educational management improvement.

Factors contributing to success

**Overall system factors and project formulation**

- \* Materials development is just one of a range of strategies for improving educational management training and attention should also be given to alternatives and/or combinations of strategies.
- \* A project team needs to take steps to ensure that the materials development strategy is integrated and co-ordinated within its context or contexts.
- \* Materials development involves many interactions (between materials developers, the user-trainers, the materials) within a particular context, the characteristics of which will change over time. The dynamic nature of the process and the differing perceptions and meanings given to the process amongst those involved, should be appreciated.

- \* Government support for and commitment to improving educational management training provision will greatly facilitate international materials development initiatives; without it, negotiating and maintaining the co-operation of local institutions will be impeded.
- \* The precise role of the project and its contribution to national efforts should be clarified at an early stage.
- \* International materials development efforts should aim to stimulate local efforts and encourage the allocation of adequate resources for future in-country training materials development.

#### **Materials design and development factors**

- \* Materials for training educational managers should derive from an assessment of needs, preferably undertaken by/with users of the materials; commonality of needs across countries cannot be assumed.
- \* International materials development should involve the users at all stages of the process from needs identification to evaluation; this highlights the importance of instituting and maintaining adequate co-operative networks.
- \* Materials writing and evaluation is time consuming and requests for co-operation should offer realistic benefits, possibly including incentives - if not monetary, then in such forms as an overseas visit.
- \* Materials developers will need to consider the relevance and suitability of different contents, structures and training methods in particular cultural contexts.
- \* Materials should be field tested by local trainers with the target group.

#### **Materials utilisation factors**

- \* International materials development projects should consider providing support for implementation, such as in-country utilisation workshops.

- \* The provision of staff development in training techniques may help to ensure that there is a match between innovative methods and materials.
- \* Where materials are produced for a variety of contexts they should be flexible and capable of being adapted by local trainers to meet local needs; this highlights that materials should be accompanied by trainers' guides which suggest how they might be used, modified and supplemented with local materials (e.g. readings)
- \* Potential users should be encouraged to appraise externally produced materials to assess their relevance, suitability, appropriateness, adequacy and usability.
- \* Trainers must feel confident in utilising materials, they will need time to get to know/'own' materials and to prepare for their use.
- \* Where support and encouragement for implementation/utilisation of innovative materials (either from the project or from within the institution) is lacking, it is more than likely that materials will not be utilised.

#### **Dissemination Factors**

- \* Efforts at materials development are wasted without dissemination and a key factor which project teams need to consider is how best to ensure that materials reach their target users, i.e. the trainers in-country. The head of a training institution may not necessarily be the sole appropriate recipient and the better alternative may be some duplication within an institution - resources permitting.
- \* Mechanisms for dissemination must take account of the likely slow diffusion of information and subsequent long term requests for materials. Means should be found of ensuring that materials are published or at least that supplies are available through a reliable non-personal contact address (there is no guaranteed continuity with an institutional project contact).



## 5.2. CONCLUSIONS: INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO THIRD WORLD EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING

### Introduction

The study set out to examine strategies of international assistance to Third World educational management training and more specifically to address the question:-

What factors need to be taken into consideration by the various people concerned, at international, national and local level, in making strategic decisions on assistance to Third World educational management training?

Before drawing general conclusions on this question a few observations will first be made about the relative advantages and disadvantages of alternative strategies.

### 5.2.1 INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE - STRATEGIC DECISIONS AND ISSUES

#### Advantages and disadvantages of alternative strategies

Despite the difficulties of making an overall assessment of the relative effectiveness of alternative strategies for improving Third World educational management training provision, a number of important issues do stand out from a consideration of international assistance in this area.

The first concerns major efforts towards institutional development. The strengthening, or establishment of specific training institutions as centres of excellence is much favoured by donors and recipients alike although it is still far from clear how best it can be promoted. The experience of some of the World Bank supported training institutions suggests just how complex institutional development is. It is now generally recognised that the establishment of new facilities does not automatically resolve the management training problem and that institutional development involves more than infrastructure development requiring both capital assistance and technical assistance.

The second, and related, issue is the need for assistance strategies to be underpinned by a greater understanding of the nature and role of training

institutions and the factors influencing their development. A large scale institutional development effort may well have certain advantages over more piecemeal strategies, but only if attention is given to all the many inter-related components making up institutional development. Thus no amount of international assistance will overcome the problems of a poorly financed and managed training institute. Furthermore, institutional needs will vary according to contexts (social and cultural settings, linkages, objectives etc.) and thus institutional development efforts have to be tailor made, taking into account the local situation rather than simply transferring or imposing foreign models and standards poorly adapted to local requirements.

Before training institutions can successfully contribute towards strengthening educational management, a wide range of inter-related questions need to be addressed by those concerned at national, political and professional levels. These include: What is the purpose of training? When and where should training take place? Who should be trained? and How? The last question will raise many critical issues concerning the development of content and processes relevant to local needs. In addition, there are fundamental questions relating to government personnel policies, in particular the tendency to transfer trained individuals to other jobs. This is a major strategic concern for international assistance which focuses specifically on the training of personnel.

Personnel development is certainly a priority need, and a third observation is to suggest that one of the most critical strategic issues in educational management training is staff development within the context of the institution itself. Thus it is evident that strategies which, for example, hope to promote the use of a wider range of training methods and training materials, will require complementary efforts towards staff development. There is little point in international and local professionals spending time and effort in these directions if the majority of staff are unable to adapt or lack the skills to exploit non-lecture based methodology and where the overriding

institutional training philosophy is didactic.

An important point however, is that no amount of training of trainers in the use of innovative materials and methods will overcome the inherent institutional problems and inertia which engulf many Third World training institutions. As long as precedence is given to maintenance functions over developmental functions, and the emphasis on meeting quantitative requirements persists, there is little hope that even the most innovative of trainers will be able to go against institutional and system norms. This is an intractable problem. The pressure for quantitative expansion precipitates a qualitative decline and there is thus a strong case for on-going internal programmes of staff development.

A fourth observation concerns the costs and benefits of alternative strategies. There is little data on this, probably because cost benefit analysis is a complex undertaking. However as a way of systematically setting out the factors which need to be taken into account in evaluating the profitability of any investment, cost benefit analysis can be a valuable aid to judgement. Thus it could have a role to play in enabling the alternative strategies to be assessed, not the least in causing quantitative questions to be asked about the alternatives. It is beyond the scope of this study to pursue such an analysis, but, in comparing the TIWEAMM project and possible alternative strategies the sorts of questions which would need to be considered might include: Firstly, what were the real costs of the TIWEAMM project? Whilst the extent of direct donor funding is clearly specified, what of the costs to the project's institutional base, to the participating institutions in Sri Lanka, Kenya and elsewhere and of the various additional components which made up the whole. Who's opportunity costs should also be accounted? Then an accurate assessment would be needed of the project impact. How effective was it, on what criteria and over what time scale? What were the benefits and to whom? and over what period of time? and so forth. This data might then be compared to the data deriving from an assessment of an alternative strategy, such as a UK based materials development course for ten study fellows.

In point of fact, donor agencies and recipients rarely confront such either/or strategic decisions with respect to costs and benefits, and it seems that the amount of money available for international assistance projects is not a particularly crucial determinant of success. The ITWEAMM project requested additional funding from the ODA to enable it to fulfil an essential evaluation and dissemination function. The decision to approve this was based on an examination of the arguments and implementation plans put forward. The availability of funds was not apparently a particular problem. By contrast, a request to ODA to fund three Third World trainers to attend the Sri Lankan workshop was inexplicably deemed non-justifiable. This introduces another important strategic issue, the fifth point, which concerns the management of funds.

Donor agencies fund projects and manage technical assistance programmes in various ways which can have considerable influence on the type of programme and its implementation. The disbursement procedures of some agencies have been criticised for their lack of flexibility; tied aid is one example. Certain paradoxes can result from some such procedures. The ITWEAMM project can again be used to illustrate the operational constraints which can arise from complex disbursement procedures. During the project it became evident that the mounting of in-country materials evaluation workshops would be an important feature of the overall strategy. As a research project, local costs could have been met from the project budget, provided they had been budgeted for in advance; since they hadn't, the alternative was to seek additional technical assistance funding. But, ODA technical assistance aid cannot be used to cover local costs. These must be met by the recipient government. The project was thus constrained in fully realising its objectives because, except in one instance, it was unable to ventriloquise such government requests. Of course had the need for paying some local costs been anticipated in the original funding request, the problem wouldn't have arisen. It is a Catch 22 situation; project design could not be rigidly pre-determined since some tactics needed to evolve through the research.

Two related points can be made in discussing the management of aid and project strategies. The first concerns the international project as an approach which attempts to provide aid in neat packages so as to enhance accountability to donors. Such an approach may be at odds with notions of 'co-operation', 'partnership' and 'flexibility'. The second, and more critical point, is that since most donors, particularly bilateral donors, can only fund institutions or aspects of the institutional system, a number of strategic options are automatically eliminated from consideration. Thus formal institutional training may be inherently incapable of bringing about administrative and management change because of the nature of the bureaucratic infrastructure; the most appropriate strategy of improvement may turn out to be through non-institutional management development. International assistance is on the whole structurally ill-equipped to meet this challenge and to support the more radical strategies such as continuous and phased organisational and team development programmes, or the promotion of industry-education linkages. Although as noted in section 2.4.4, there have been a few recent exceptions in other areas of education such as Zambia's SHAPE model (Zambia, 1985).

In the final analysis, it is clear that there can be no optimum strategy for international assistance to Third World educational management development. The strategies open to multilateral and bilateral donors and recipient governments are varied, indeed the summary of lessons from Third World experience in this and other fields suggests that each strategy has its impact and none appears to have decisive advantages over another. A few trends have been noted, such as Unesco's shift towards the shorter specialist assignment, ODA's emphasis on project related training, and the generally higher profile being given to regional initiatives by many donors. Moreover, it is evident that trade-offs will be made between deploying local vs. foreign experts; using consultants from universities, Government sponsored (e.g. British Council) specialists, or individuals from private firms; between short well-focused visits vs. longer-term visits; training in the west vs. third country

training; and so forth. In sum, it is likely that, given the diversity of needs, interests, situations and contexts, the most effective approach is the contingency approach which advocates flexibility and the use of different strategies and combinations of strategies in different situations.

#### Factors contributing to success

As the study has attempted to bring into focus, there are many critical issues surrounding Third World educational management training which need to be addressed by those concerned with improving the quality of training in order that it might better contribute towards strengthening educational management. International assistance in this area is increasingly forthcoming and it is important to draw on past experience, and attempt to identify those factors which might contribute towards success.

Before presenting some conclusions, a caveat is necessary. The literature on educational change abounds with lists of factors contributing to success. Many of these are remarkably similar, and are supported by the ITWEAMM project experiences. Indeed, it seems that lessons from past experience are often forgotten when it comes to formulating and implementing a new project. Partly, this is a human proclivity to function within very narrow disciplines, without recognising that the experiences of endeavours in one field may be equally applicable to those in another.

This point can be illustrated by presenting the conclusions of one writer (Baldrige, 1975) concerning educational change in America. He proposes the following set of rules for a good change strategy:-

- A serious assessment of needs is necessary
- Proposed changes must be relevant to organisations' history
- Changes must take the environment into account
- Serious changes must affect both structure and individual attitudes
- Changes must be directed at manipulable factors
- Changes must be both politically and economically feasible

- Changes must be an effective solution to the problems that were diagnosed

These rules are equally applicable to the field of study examined here, as are the various formulations by writers such as Dalin (1978), Hurst (1983), Fullan (1982) and Havelock and Huberman (1977). However they are generalisations and the conclusions which are summarised below are more specifically focused towards those concerned with international assistance to educational management training. These are presented in relation to the strategic decision-makers at four levels: the international-political (political level in donor countries, including agency level); the international-professional (professional programme level); the national-political (political level in recipient countries); and national or local-professional (the professional level in recipient countries). Not all the issues fall neatly into any one group, but in order to avoid repetition they are placed at the level in which it is believed they are most applicable.

#### **International-political**

It would seem that attention to the following issues may help contribute towards greater strategic impact:-

- \* instituting mechanisms for promoting co-ordination between agencies operating in the same area to avoid competition/conflict/duplication;
- \* shifting from the provision of a large number of fragmented unrelated initiatives towards integrating and co-ordinating strategies within their context;
- \* adopting more flexible disbursement procedures - or at least rationalising existing procedures;
- \* collaborating more closely with recipients in deciding and elaborating aid priorities and strategies within the area of educational management training;
- \* recognising that traditional forms of implementing assistance may limit the adoption of more innovative strategies and that therefore there is a need to explore strategies which support non-institutionally based/less conventional approaches to educational management development.

### **International-professional**

This is an influential group when it comes to strategic decisions since it is frequently involved in project formulation, design and implementation. The following would seem to be major considerations:-

- \* The assumption that there is commonality of needs may result in an inappropriate choice of strategy. It is important to question whether international standards and specifications for educational management training exist. Some educational management problems may be universal but they will have different manifestations in different regions and countries.
- \* A pre-condition for success is the in-depth study of the training context(s); including an examination of the role and functions of educational personnel and of the existing training institution(s) and systems.
- \* Project formulation requires attention to many cross-cultural issues. Sensitivity and humility will help to ensure understanding and reconciliation of cultural differences and value systems which may well exist vis a vis donors/recipients and amongst key personnel; team building may be necessary to help establish common ground between people with different perspectives.
- \* A project design which involves collaboration (e.g. through a network of participating institutions) requires careful diagnosis of prevailing political, economic, socio-cultural and technological facets of the environment in order to better understand the role, needs and expectations of persons who are expected to participate and their institutional frameworks (power structures; decision-making structures; organisational climate/norms, communication patterns, organisational norms).
- \* Conceptual flexibility in the project design will enable rapid response to external changes and the reconciliation of any resulting variance between the many project factors; adhering rigidly to a project strategy may do little to advance the causes of educational management training improvement.



- \* Canvassing broad national-political support will facilitate the implementation of strategies by ensuring good communication channels, the necessary collaboration between parties at all levels and the provision of indispensable support by national-professionals.
- \* Effective project design and implementation recognises that not everything can be foreseen, and has a built-in capacity to monitor to ensure constructive interventions and remedial action where necessary.

### **National-political**

The greatest benefit from international assistance strategies is likely to accrue where the following features are present:-

- \* policy-makers clearly perceive the determinants and consequences of alternative strategies and have opportunities to fully explore the pros and cons of viable alternatives;
- \* the proposed strategy focuses on addressing the need for both qualitative and quantitative training improvement; an overemphasis on training the maximum number in the shortest time may have limited impact if attention is not also given to training quality;
- \* training institutions are supported/encouraged to recognise their developmental role and stimulated to adopt innovative thinking towards improving the quality of their training provision; excessive bureaucratic rules and regulations hamper creativity and innovativeness;
- \* personnel policy-makers recognise that shortages of trained personnel are a major constraint and attributable not only to transfers to other agencies but also to the inadequacy of support staff to take on routine work and to the excessive work load which reduces efficiency of existing trained personnel; resources could be better mobilised by allowing greater autonomy and responsibility.

### **National-professional**

There are many ways in which this group can influence the actual outcomes of international assistance strategies, however their influence on strategic decisions is less direct than their political masters. Five key issues can be noted:

- \* The greater influence professionals can have on the type and nature of international assistance strategies the more likely it is that there will be longer term benefits; after all it is they who are likely to be most involved in implementation.
- \* Since improved training effectiveness is the goal of assistance, the professionals need to ensure that all the various dimensions of training provision are put on the agenda for consideration, starting with needs identification right through to evaluation.
- \* Much that is going on in educational management training has its origins in the west and its relevance to local contexts needs careful scrutiny. Particular attention could be given to critically examining training models, course content and methods.
- \* A major determinant of training success is to effectively bridge the gap between theory and practice and enable transfer of learning; personnel need to consider how best to utilise theoretical frameworks (possibly acquired through overseas studies), and how to ensure that practice has meaning - the solutions to these dilemmas are unlikely to come from any outside source.
- \* The key role of local research and the widespread dissemination of local research findings should not be overlooked.

### **Some general propositions**

Finally, a few general propositions can be made about the strategic considerations which should influence all those considered with appraising, selecting or implementing strategies for international assistance to educational management training, be they representatives from international agencies, scholars and practitioners, or Third World politicians and professionals:

- \* International assistance for improving Third World educational management training provision can at best be catalytic; the contribution of a particular strategy will be diminished if it is not integrated with government initiatives and at least rationalised in relation to other donor strategies.
- \* Educational management training is currently seen as a key priority area by donors and, it must be assumed, national policy makers. It is less evident that the formulation of priorities for external assistance within this area (i.e. the elaboration of particular projects and strategies) has been a joint donor-recipient task.
- \* The assumptions underlying any proposed strategy should be carefully examined by all involved and if necessary questioned, particularly in respect of the role of the project, its benefits and purported contribution to overall efforts.
- \* Experience indicates that a combination of integrated strategies focusing on all components of institutional and personnel development is most likely to contribute towards educational management training improvement. Both capital and technical assistance have a role to play, but it is suggested that greater attention could be given to developing more innovative strategies possibly linked to greater support for national research and intra-national information exchange.

## 5.2.2 A FINAL COMMENT

This thesis has focused on strategies of international assistance in one area of Third World education, using as a case study an ODA-funded project. The project was comparatively small in international assistance terms, but it is felt by the writer to have generated some valuable information on a topic which has received considerable attention from multilateral and bilateral agencies of late. Whilst there is every indication that educational management training will continue to be given high priority at least in the immediate future, such is the oscillatory nature of

trends in education, that favoured priorities for assistance do not remain at the top of the international aid agenda for long. All the more reason then to reap the maximum benefits of the current bonanza by ensuring that strategies successfully contribute towards the ultimate goal of strengthening educational management.

There is however a dilemma for those concerned with educational management improvement in that it involves the alleviation of both structural deficiencies and personnel deficiencies (in terms of managerial skills, knowledges and attitudes). One facet of the dilemma is that in giving priority to strategies for personnel improvement the significant linkages with the former will be overlooked. Equally, in focusing on the latter and proposing a training solution, the wider contextual and policy implications will be ignored. The other facet of the dilemma is that international assistance to educational management training is concerned with bringing about change. The innovation process is full of complexities not the least of which is the slow rate of diffusion. In the absence of quantum leaps forward, any steady improvement may be imperceptible and everyone's patience may run out.

Thus there are some who argue that the focus on training for educational management improvement is misguided; formalised training, they say, is an incorrect solution for managerial development. Be that as it may, there is still a widespread consensus that training educational planners, managers and administrators is essential in order to help narrow the enormous gaps which have opened up between educational intentions and educational reality. But while politicians and officials may pay lip-service to the need for training managers, many training institutes are starved of resources. Unless the job is done properly, with adequate facilities and budgets, the notional sums that are actually allocated by governments are in fact wasted because training programmes are likely to be ineffective. International assistance can only ever be catalytic, it cannot substitute for effective national policies and the commitment of sufficient national resources.

As has been seen, international initiatives in this field are a quite recent phenomenon and adopt a range of strategies or mix of strategies. The challenge facing those concerned with strategic decision-making at international, national and local level, is to better appreciate the range of issues involved. This thesis has endeavoured to contribute towards the expansion of the knowledge base on this topic and to identify some factors which might be determinants of success. These conclusions inevitably suggest the benefits of additional policy-oriented and professionally-oriented research, and greater opportunities for donors and recipients to exchange ideas and experiences. These are themselves prime opportunities for international assistance and collaboration.

## ANNEX 1 - PROJECT LISTINGS

This annex summarises selected international research and development activities of bilateral and multinational agencies in the area of educational management and administrator training and teacher education.

Details of the following are presented:-

- (a) Activities in and amongst Commonwealth countries
  - The Commonwealth Secretariat
  - The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration
- (b) Unesco headquarters initiatives - the Division of Educational Policy and Planning
  - Training and Upgrading Methods and Techniques in the Field of Educational Planning, Administration and Facilities
- (c) Unesco regional activities in Africa
  - Contributions to Training in Educational Planning and Administration
  - The Corforpa Project: Regional Technical Co-operation for Training and Research in Educational Planning and Administration
  - Training of Trainers in Educational Management for Some English-Speaking African Countries
- (d) Unesco regional activities in Asia and the Pacific
  - Regional Technical Co-operation for Training Educational Personnel in Planning and Management Using Distance Teaching Techniques
- (e) An ODA-funded research project in teacher education
  - The INSET Africa Project

(a) Activities in and amongst Commonwealth countries

THE COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

Background: The Commonwealth Secretariat has been actively engaged in a range of activities concerned with the professional development of educational administrators for over a decade. The Commonwealth Education Conferences have repeatedly expressed concern over the need to train administrators, particularly school and college heads, inspectors and supervisors, and education officers.

Approach: Examples of the approach adopted to help meet educational management training needs include the three regional seminar workshops held in Africa (1973), the Caribbean (1974) and Asia and the Pacific (1975). At these, outlines for use in short in-service courses were developed. In addition, the seminars draw attention to the need for greater assistance to this area, and the value of shared resources for training on a regional basis.

A meeting was subsequently held in Nairobi (1975) for senior officials from six Ministries of Education and University representatives in Africa, to plan regional training courses. The meeting endorsed the need for establishing regional training centres in the Commonwealth and agreement was reached on content and learning methods to ensure relevant and practical oriented courses. A series of Regional Training courses on Educational Administration and Supervision were held in Kenya (1977), Fiji (1978) and Barbados (1979). These were based on the principle that existing training institutions are the most effective mechanisms by which courses of the type recommended at Nairobi could be provided.

More recent Commonwealth Education Conferences (1980; 1984) have also emphasised the need to expand training capabilities in this area. A meeting was held in Jamaica in 1981 on 'Management for Change' and a Working Party was set up to pursue the recommendations concerning training. In particular, its remit was to facilitate the establishment of a 'Commonwealth Regional Training Programme for Educational Administration' in the Caribbean. It was envisaged that the programme would be based at the University of the West Indies, and would be targeted at education officers, principals of schools and colleges and heads of department. Progress towards setting up this programme has been slow.

Outcomes - Publications: Reports of the 19 0's courses have been published and these provide details of the course content and methodology, case study and other teaching materials and exercises used, and the evaluations undertaken. Recommendations for future action noted in these publications include: the need for surveying existing materials and initiating collaborative production of material for future training. Subsequent to these courses the Commonwealth Secretariat published *Leadership in the Management of Education: A Handbook for Educational Supervisors* by Hughes (1981). The Secretariat has also published CCEA documents - as noted in the next entry.

References: Commonwealth Secretariat (1980; 1980a; 1981; 1981a; 1982); Hughes (1981)

## THE COMMONWEALTH COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Background: The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA) was established in 1970 with an Executive Director based at the University of New England, Australia. The Association has over three and a half thousand members spread throughout the Commonwealth countries, and is a non-governmental professional association partly funded by the Commonwealth Foundation.

Aims: To foster a high standard in the practice and study of educational administration; to hold Commonwealth wide and regional conferences on various aspects of educational administration; to facilitate the dissemination of knowledge about research and practice in educational administration between teachers, students and practitioners in member countries; and to encourage the establishment in Commonwealth countries of national associations of those concerned with the improvement of educational administration.

Approach: Through its network of regional groups, CCEA provides a widespread channel of communication for those in the field. It publishes a Newsletter and the quarterly *Studies in Educational Administration*. The CCEA initiated, *Commonwealth Directory of Qualifications and Courses in Educational Administration* (3rd, edition), was published in 1980 by the Commonwealth Secretariat, who also published *The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators* in 1983, and the *Commonwealth Casebook for Administrators in Post-Secondary Education* in 1985.

Recent CCEA Regional Conferences have been held in Fiji (1973); Malaysia (1975); Bangladesh (1977), Cyprus (1980), India (1984) and Barbados (1985). The Barbados Conference was run in association with the Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators and was on the theme 'The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas'. The CCEA also plays an important role in facilitating the International Intervisitation Programme (IIP) which runs on a four year cycle.

References: Commonwealth Secretariat (1980a; 1983; 1985); Marshall and Newton (1986)



(b) Unesco headquarters initiatives - the Division of Educational Policy and Planning

TRAINING AND UPGRADING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION, PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND FACILITIES

Background: The Unesco Programme and budget describes the activities to be undertaken by Division of Educational Policy and Planning (EPP), The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and Unesco Regional Offices in the training of national personnel in the fields of educational planning, administration and facilities. This includes the development of training materials in support of these programmes.

Aims: The aims of this materials development project are to substantially strengthen training activities through the enhanced collaboration between Regional Offices, headquarters and other relevant organisations in materials preparation.

Approach: Initiated in 1977, the first phase of the project included the collection and analysis of existing materials and the elaboration of a conceptual framework for project materials development. Subsequent meetings in 1979 and 1980 refined the proposed framework, agreeing on training needs, target populations, subject matter, and the form and content of materials. The methodology for elaborating the materials was finalised. Unesco commissioned authors, including Third World nationals, to develop modular materials. These materials aim to meet the needs of middle-level practitioners. They introduce learners to key issues and convey specific skills required in performance of particular work functions. They are for use within national, regional and sub-regional training programmes but are meant to be adapted to local and national needs, and complemented by practical assignments and exercises.

The evaluation of the materials commenced in 1985. This involves their use on courses by a network of evaluators and the completion of a two part questionnaire covering aspects of their use, and the appropriateness of objectives in meeting training needs. To date evaluation responses have been poor, but two field trials have been mounted in Botswana and Australia.

Outcomes - the training materials: The materials consist of a number of thematically related modules combined into a cluster; several clusters make up a series. These are/will be available in English, French and Spanish. The original scope of materials development has been modified due to poor co-operation from the Regional Offices and IIEP. In the event a total of 32 authors contributed to the elaboration of 17 clusters composed of 84 modules on a wide variety of topics concerned with educational planning, administration and facilities.

Outcomes - the evaluation exercise: The reports on the two field trial evaluations stress among the strong points: attractive style of presentation; clear setting of objectives; the comprehensiveness of material; a simple approach. Among the weak points are: the techniques are less generally applicable than supposed; the need for exercises using local data; insufficient practical examples and exercises; and poor illustrative material. It was suggested that the impact of the materials could be greater if they were followed up or preceded by brief explanatory courses.

References: Kaye (1980; 1981); Unesco, EPP (1980; 1985; 1986)

(c) Unesco Regional Activities in Africa: The Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa (Breda), Senegal

CONTRIBUTIONS TO TRAINING IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

Aims: to improve national capabilities in educational planning and administration through research and the provision of training.

Approach: Unesco, Breda has initiated a wide range of research and training activities. Research projects have included a survey of the training needs of personnel in educational planning units (undertaken in 1979), and the Coforpa project (see below). Training activities have included a number of regional courses, for example those for high-level educational planners and middle-level Education Officers (usually run on a language grouping), together with national courses on a variety of topics and for different levels of personnel. A recent initiative is the programme to train the educational management trainers (see next page). There have also been small scale materials development initiatives such as that mounted by NEIDA to develop guidelines for the in-service training of middle level and lower level educational planning and administrative personnel. A few of these activities will be described further.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF MIDDLE AND LOWER LEVEL EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES.

A Unesco/Ford Foundation Programme 1984-1985. Unesco, Network of Educational Innovation for Development in Africa (Neida), Unesco, Breda.

Aims: To increase national capacities for planning and administering decentralised educational systems and programmes in selected West African countries - Cameroon, Liberia, Nigeria and Sierra Leone.

Approach: The programmes consisted of a variety of inter-dependent activities including: the preparation of case studies on current practices in each of the participating countries; workshops to develop guidelines for conducting the national training exercises; study tours; and a national training workshop in each country.

Outcomes: The basis of the programme was the guidelines for the national training exercises. A modular approach was adopted and eight modules were developed. The guidelines describe the rationale of the training programme, the categories of persons for whom they are intended, the characteristics of the modular approach to teaching and learning, and the module outlines. Topics cover the purpose of educational planning at the local, aspects of educational policy formulation and implementation at the local level, financial needs of the school system, and educational administrators and teachers as change agents.

COFORPA PROJECT - REGIONAL TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

Aims: The two and a half year UNDP funded project (1983-86), aims to develop the capacity for training and research in the region through regional co-operation, and to organise training activities for trainers and researchers to be called upon for this co-operative scheme.

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Approach: Member countries were invited to participate in the project and national authorities designated one or several national collaborators for involvement in the various activities. An operational framework was devised to cover a range of activities including: missions to examine existing programmes and needs; the collection of data on trends, planned programmes, present and foreseen training and research needs and prospects for co-operation; the preparation of synthesis reports; a periodic information bulletin; study visits; consultative services; practical training for trainers and researchers; a regional meeting of national collaborators; specialised workshops for the production of materials; and the publication and dissemination of a series of studies and research documents on issues pertaining to educational planning and administration in the region.

#### TRAINING OF TRAINERS IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT FOR SOME ENGLISH-SPEAKING AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Aims: The two year programme (1986-1988), funded by SIDA and executed by Unesco, has as its aims: to provide intensive training and extensive professional support to 48 educational management trainers nominated by up to twelve participating English-speaking countries; to provide technical and material assistance to each country towards organising and conducting a national course for middle-level educational managers; and to support the preparation of suitable training materials by participants for use in their national training programmes.

Approach: The project takes into account the establishment within the Region of national training institutes for staff development in educational management. The participating countries will be all or some of the following: Botswana, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The project has appointed a Project Co-ordinator and has its headquarters in Nairobi at the Unesco Regional Office for Science and Technology in Africa.

Activities which were specified in the original plans included: project planning meetings; preparatory missions to participating countries; preparation of national information documents and case studies by national participants; preparatory workshops for the first residential course; the first residential course (eight weeks); advisory services in connection with national training programmes; project-related national training courses conducted by participating national teams; second residential course (three weeks); preparation, publication and dissemination of training materials, and a handbook of training methods.

References: Unesco, Breda (1980; 1982; 1985); Unesco, Neida (1985); Unesco, Coforpa (1984)

(d) Unesco Regional Activities in Asia and the Pacific: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, (Roeap), Thailand.

REGIONAL TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION FOR TRAINING EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL IN PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT USING DISTANCE AND OTHER TECHNIQUES

Aims: The phased Unesco/UNDP inter-country project commenced in 1979 with the aim of developing training materials and preparing key training personnel through inter-country co-operation in pooling experiences and expertise and the exchange and field testing of materials

Approach: The project was based on the principle of Technical Co-operation among Developing Countries. Co-operating governments identified participating national centres/programmes whose representatives met to draw up a work plan in late 1978. This plan outlined a range of staff development and materials development initiatives. A subsequent meeting held a year later, considered the development and testing of national training materials in educational planning and management. A combined Group Training Course cum Staff Development Workshop, consisting of a correspondence tuition phase, training workshop, practical field experience and follow-up instructional phase, was mounted in 1980/81. This was followed by a series of study visits in the region with a view to cross-fertilization of experiences in materials development and the organisation of national training programmes. A project evaluation workshop was held in Thailand in 1983.

Outcomes: The review of country papers presented at the 1979 Meeting indicated that almost all participating countries had established mechanisms for training educational planning and administrative personnel. Whilst a few of these were specialist institutes, most were based at existing institutions (eg. Universities, Teacher Training Colleges). Face-to-face teaching using some learning materials were the predominant training modality, although some countries were beginning to introduce print-based distance learning techniques supported by contact sessions. Lack of finance, manpower and materials were major constraints militating against the expansion of training programmes. No systematic evaluation of programmes had been conducted. The meeting also discussed priority training needs, the identification of content areas, and considered suggestions for the production of a handbook. It noted the need for local/specific material and for materials such as case studies which would help trainees to interpret and apply basic principles and concepts to real life situations.

The 1980/81 Training course/staff development workshop enrolled 56 candidates, half of whom attended the sessions which were designed to provide experience in writing and preparing training modules on selected topics. Overall course evaluation indicated that the majority of the participants felt that course objectives were fully met.

The report on the Inter-country study visits noted that although there had been substantial growth in in-service training facilities, these were still inadequate. The use of distance teaching techniques was becoming more popular. The evaluation workshop held in 1983 examined the progress achieved during the project and identified growth points for future programmes. Salient features were as follows:-

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Outcomes - materials development: The distance teaching materials consisting of seven books, *Basic Training Programmes in Educational Planning and Management*, had been revised and widely used with distribution of 750 copies up to 1983. Additional modules had also been developed in order to provide training programmes with flexible combinations of course content depending on the specific theme or specific training needs of clientele groups. The sets of materials had been tested and six countries had adapted them to suit local requirements - in three countries this had involved translation.

A handbook for trainers was prepared and published in 1981; *Handbook for Trainers in Educational Management: with Special Reference to Countries in Asia and the Pacific*. This covers general discussions on training systems, and more detailed examination of the organisation of training programmes, the identification of training needs, the development of curriculum, the selection of methods and materials, and the evaluation of programmes.

Outcomes - project impact: The 1983 evaluation workshop was of the view that while the immediate objectives of the project had been achieved to the level of satisfaction of the participating countries (India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand), the impact of project inputs on strengthening national capacities could only be considered catalytic. It was recommended that the activities should be continued and in particular, further attention should be given to improving training capabilities in the institutions involved.

References: Pareek and Rao (1981); Unesco, Roeap (1979; 1979a; 1980; 1980a; 1983)

(e) An ODA-funded research project in teacher education

THE INSET AFRICA PROJECT:

CENTRE FOR OVERSEAS STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL, UK.

Aims: To survey the In-Service Education and Training of Teachers in Africa and provide an information base for decisions concerning the most appropriate strategies for INSET provision.

Approach: The project was established under the auspices of the Association of Teacher Education in Africa and in consultation with University Departments of Education and Ministries of Education in thirteen English-speaking countries of Africa. A national researcher was appointed in each country. Following a meeting between the researchers and the project team (during which research guidelines, information categories and research instruments were finalised), each researcher compiled a national survey of INSET and produced a case study of a specific project. Regional dissemination workshops were held in Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe, to discuss findings, examine key issues, and exchange ideas on possible future development in this area.

Outcomes: The major outcome was the synthesis report of the whole field, based on the analysis of the thirteen national surveys (Botswana, The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe). This reviewed the major findings and presented seventeen case studies of individual INSET strategies.

The second outcome was the publication and dissemination of the more detailed documentation. This consists of the thirteen country reports. The first part of each country study provides a detailed account of current INSET policy and provision for primary teachers. This outlines priorities within INSET, the status given to INSET by the Ministry, the accreditation of courses by the Ministry, budgetary provision, out-of-country INSET, and training INSET trainers. There is also a description of selected INSET agencies and their activities covering information about the agency, activity and target group; scale of activity, content, teaching techniques and methods of assessment; inducements to attend and benefits; responsibility for decisions affecting INSET activities; and evaluation of activities. Information was also obtained from the survey questionnaire on teachers' experience of and attitudes to INSET activities. The second part of the study is a comprehensive analysis of one particular INSET project which was felt to be of interest to other countries. In each study there is some reference to, and analysis of INSET activities aimed at head teachers.

The third outcome was the two dissemination workshops. The Dissemination workshop held in Zimbabwe was supported by the German Foundation for International Development who also published a report of the workshop papers and deliberations. Overall, the project strengthened links between members of the research team and between the institutions to which they belong, and led to greater commitment to pursue collaborative research in the future.

Findings from the study have been further analysed together with a Unesco study on 'The Role of School Principals in In-Service Teacher Training' and a report prepared by Greenland (1983) to highlight the key features of the role of the head in INSET provision.

References: Greenland, (1982/1983); Greenland, (1983); Bude and Greenland (1983).

## ANNEX 2 - THE PROJECT NETWORK

List of individuals and institutions co-operating as at 31st March 1986

### **CENTRAL ASIA**

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Ministry of Education, Malay Street, Colombo 2, SRI LANKA

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Mr L Habib Khan, Director, Academy of Educational Planning and  
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Dharmi P Sinha, Centre for Educational Policy on Management,  
Admin. Staff College of India, Bella Vista Hyderabad, 500 475 INDIA

Dr S P Ahluwalia, Prof & Dean Education, University of Saugar, Saugar  
470.003 M.P., INDIA

### **FAR EAST ASIA**

Professor Liu Fu-nian, President East China Normal University,  
Shanghai, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Dr Ransoo Kim, Dean College of Education, Yonsei University Seoul, KOREA

Dr Inho Ha, Director Division of Educational Programmes, National  
Institute of Educational Research & Training, Samchong-Dong, Seoul, KOREA

Professor Paul Chang, 26 Jalan 21/9, Petaling Jaya, MALAYSIA

Mr Chew Tow Yow, Director, National Institute of Educational Management,  
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Lumpur, MALAYSIA

Dr Kamarudin Kachar, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti  
Pertanian Malaysia, Serdang Selangor, MALAYSIA

Tunku (Dr) Ismail Jawa, School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains  
Malaysia, Minden Penang, MALAYSIA

Manuel Javier, Associate Director, Idea, Xavier University, Cagayan de  
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Liceria Brilliantes Soriano, Innotech Regional Center for Educational  
Innovation and Technology, D Mariano Marcos Avenue, Quezon City,  
PHILIPPINES

Dr Sanon, Director, Institute for Development of Educational  
Administrators, Ministry of Education, Bangkok 5, THAILAND

### **MIDDLE EAST AND SOUTHERN EUROPE**

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Dr A el-Koussy, 10 Moh Kamel Mursi Street Dokki, Giza, EGYPT

Professor Moh Abul Ela, First Under Secretary Ministry of Education, El  
Falaky Street, Cairo, EGYPT

Dr. C. Farrugia, Faculty of Education, University of Malta, Tal Groqq, MALTA

#### AFRICA

Mr N Chitamun, Mauritius Institute of Education, Reduit, MAURITIUS

Dr K A Awuku, Director Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, GHANA

Dr J Olembo, Kenyatta University College, P O Box 43844, Nairobi, KENYA

Professor Chief D Edem, University of Calabar, Calabar, NIGERIA

Professor Segun Adesina, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, P M B 1515 Ilorin, NIGERIA

Mr Lawrence Kibatala, Management Training for Educational Personnel Institute, P O Box 70, Bagamoyo, TANZANIA

Dr F B Lenglet, Institute of Development Management, P O Box 1357, Gaborone, BOTSWANA

Mr Negussie Habeteyes, Management and Training Services Ministry of Education, P O Box 1367, Addis Ababa, ETHIOPIA

Mr. E. Karunije, Deputy Chief Education Officer, Ministry of Education, Crested Towers, P.O. Box 7063, Kampala, UGANDA

#### CARIBBEAN & SOUTH AMERICA

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Professor Hans N Weiler, School of Education (SIDE), Stanford University, California 94305, USA

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Dr S A Hickrod, Center for the Study of Educational Finance Dept. of Educational Administration & Foundations, College of Education Illinois State University 331 De Garmo Hall, Normal Illinois 61761

G E Hall, Program Director Research on the Improvement Process, The University of Texas at Austin, Texas, USA



#### AUSTRALIA & PACIFIC

Dr W T Field, Director of Studies, Armidale College of Advanced Education, Armidale N.S.W., AUSTRALIA

Colin R J Moyle, Director Institute of Educational Administration, 9th Floor 30 Collin's Street, Melbourne Victoria, AUSTRALIA 300

Warren L Mellor, Director International Program in Development Education, Monash University, Clayton Victoria, AUSTRALIA 3168

Prem Udagama, Institute of Education University of the South Pacific, Laucala Campus, P O Box 1168 Suva, FIJI

Mr John Weeks, Technical Adviser, Ministry of Education, P O Box 153 Port-Vila, Vanuatu, SOUTH PACIFIC

#### MISCELLANEOUS: INSTITUTIONS, AGENCIES AND INDIVIDUALS

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Dr Tun Lwin, & Dr. Iraj Ayman, Programme Specialists in Educational Planning/Management and Administration, UNESCO - Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, 920 Suckhumvit Road, Bangkok, THAILAND

Mr I Anzen & Mr A Lemay, Planning and Administration UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa, 12 Avenue Roume, Dakar, SENEGAL

Mr. P. Laderriere, International School Improvement Project, CERI, OECD, 2, Rue Conseiller-Collignon, Paris 16e, FRANCE

Eskil Stego & Mats Ekholm, Skilledarutbildningen (School Leader Education) Box 249, S-581 02 Linköping, SWEDEN

Kees Gielen, Interstudie SO, Bothaplein 1, 6814 Aj Arnhem, NETHERLANDS

Clive Hopes, German Institute for International Educational Research, Schloss Strasse 29, 6000 Frankfurt Am Main 90, FR GERMANY

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Robin Farquhar, President, Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, The University of Winnipeg 515 Portage Avenue, CANADA

Sheldon Shaeffer, Associate Director (Education), International Development Research Centre, P O Box/LP 8500, Ottawa, CANADA K1G 3H9

David Marshall, Director Regional Services, Dept of Education, Manitoba 116-1200 Portage Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba, CANADA R3G 0T5

Basil Kings Executive Director, Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, The University of New England Armidale, N S W 2351 AUSTRALIA

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**University of London Institute of Education**

20 Bedford Way, London WC1H 0AL Telephone 01-636 1500

Director: Professor Denis Lawton, BA, PhD

**RESEARCH PROJECT:**

**TRAINING THIRD WORLD EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS - METHODS AND MATERIALS**

Director: Dr. Paul Hurst.

Research Officer: Ms. Susie Rodwell

**A. Existing Provision**

1. What categories of personnel are your training programmes aimed at?
2. What is the length of these programmes or courses?
3. Are there any other institutions in your country providing training for these or other categories of educational administration personnel?
4. What are the objectives of your programmes in terms of the particular skills and areas of knowledge you aim to convey?

**B. Methods and Materials**

5. Which training methods are used on these courses?
6. Do you use particular training methods for particular training tasks? If so, which?
7. What audio-visual/electronic resources do you use in training programmes:  
Tape-Slide?  
Film?  
Videotape/cassette? (please state format)  
Microcomputer?  
Other?
8. Do you use any case-studies, simulations, or other training exercises specially designed for your programmes? (if yes, we would appreciate a description of these, or preferably copies of the training materials themselves. We would also appreciate your comments on the advantages and disadvantages of the materials you use.)

**C. Training Needs**

9. Have you or your institution ever carried out any survey or analysis of the training needs of your trainees? If yes, what was the method used to obtain and analyse this information? What were the principal findings? How were the findings used in designing training?
10. Has there been any survey or analysis of the training needs in educational administration in your country by anyone else?

11. Are there any major foreseeable developments in education in your country which might affect the needs of your trainees in future?
12. Have you or your institution carried out any evaluations of your training courses? If yes, what methods of evaluation were used? What were the principal findings? How were these findings used in altering the design of training courses?

D. Scope of this Project

13. Should the training materials developed by this project be for programmes aimed at:
  - (1) school principals
  - (2) district education officers or equivalent
  - (3) school inspectors/supervisors/advisers
  - (4) any other category?
14. What skills and areas of knowledge should the training materials be addressed to?
15. We have tentatively identified some possible topic areas, and would welcome your comments. Are these important, or feasible? Are there any we should avoid, or any we have omitted? (cf, your answer to question 14).
  - A. Assessing and improving the classroom performance of teachers.
  - B. Using microcomputers for administrative purposes in schools and district education offices.
  - C. Implementing educational innovations in schools and districts. (Note: This module would reflect international experience and analysis of the problems of changing curriculum, teaching methods and organization at the school and local level.)
  - D. Improving school/community links and relations.
  - E. The management of resources - making cost-effective use of space, buildings and equipment, consumables, and people's time.
  - F. Gathering information and making decisions.
16. Should the training materials be for the trainer or the trainee? In other words:
  - (a) should we produce materials that indicate to the trainer how he or she might design and execute a particular training task. Or,
  - (b) should the materials be of the kind that would be given to the trainers for use in a taught course. Or,
  - (c) should the materials be self-instructional and individualised, where the trainee would work on them alone (or in groups), seeking help from the trainer only when necessary?

## ANNEX 4 - A GUIDE TO EVALUATING PROJECT MATERIALS

(The following is a copy of the evaluation guide sent to network participants).

### TRAINING THIRD WORLD EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS - METHODS AND MATERIALS

#### MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE - AN EVALUATION GUIDE

We anticipate that the materials making up the module "Managing Educational Change" will be used in a variety of ways. In view of this we have decided not to ask you to complete a detailed and rigid evaluation pro-forma. Rather, we would value your comments on a number of questions, the responses to which would be helpful to us in re using the materials.

Essentially we would like to know how you used the materials, what worked, what didn't work, and why you think this might be so. We would also like to have your views on the strategy adopted in the materials, their adequacy for your needs as a trainer of educational administrators, their usability, and how you feel that the materials or aspects of the materials could be improved. If you have not actually used the materials, (or are unlikely to be able to do so before the end of 1985), it would still be useful to have your comments on them, and some indication of the reasons why you won't be using them.

This evaluation guide is in two parts. Part A covers your actual usage of the materials, suggesting some of the points which we would like you to include in your description of use. Part B raises more specific evaluation questions. Please provide as much detail as possible in your answers, and feel free to make any additional comments and observations on the materials as you wish.

Finally, we thank you once again for your continued interest and co-operation in the project.

#### PART A. YOUR ACTUAL USAGE OF THE MATERIALS

Please describe how you used the materials, with particular attention to the following points:-

- (a) Did you use them: *complete* as presented; *selected units only*; or in a considerably *modified and adapted* form? Please provide as much detail as possible in your description.
- b) Were the materials used on a course/seminar/workshop/one-day session etc...? Who were the target audience? If used selectively, which units did you use and how? If adapted for use in an existing programme, please state the aim and nature of the course, and give as much detail as possible on your strategy of use.
- (c) What problems (eg. with respect to content, methods, organisation, practical aspects of usage, etc..) did you encounter in using the materials?
- (d) What particular features of the materials did you find most useful and effective?
- (e) Were additional materials prepared and used alongside the project materials? Some examples would be helpful.

- (f) To what extent did you follow the suggested procedures and discussion points given on the trainers' worksheet?
- (g) What sort of reaction did the participants have to the materials and the approaches inherent in the materials?
- (h) Materials evaluation. If you were able to undertake a more detailed evaluation of the materials within the framework of a course evaluation one key question is the extent to which the stated objectives of each unit were achieved. (It would be helpful if you could make reference to specific units and objectives)

## PART B - EVALUATION QUESTIONS

### 1. Evaluation of strategy

- 1.1. The philosophy underlying these materials is that of learning through an analysis of the problems and practical realities of educational administration. How does this approach fit in (a) with your own views, (b) with the views of others in your country, about training?
- 1.2. The training strategy embodied in the materials emphasises active learner participation, through trainer facilitated, group paced activities and discussions. Is this strategy appropriate to your particular training context (eg. with respect to training aims and target groups)?
- 1.3. The overall aims of the materials are described in the introductory booklet "Managing Educational Change - Introduction and Overview". Are these explicit? Do you feel that they have been realised?
- 1.4. How does the selection and treatment of the subject matter (Managing Educational Change) fit in with your own views about the theme and how best it can be treated? Please elaborate, with reference to topics, units and sub-themes where possible.
- 1.5. Do you think that the materials (i.e. the thematic-topic-unit linkages) have a balanced coherent structure? Should there be greater emphasis on some sub-themes, less on others?
- 1.6. Each unit has a number of specific learning objectives. Give your views on the likelihood of reasonable success for a large proportion of participants in achieving these.
- 1.7. Do you feel that the trainer education element, embodied in the materials (in particular in the trainers' worksheets and additional notes), is appropriate and/or necessary? Did you personally find it helpful?
- 1.8. Do you think that the material is likely to stimulate trainers to re-assess their present approaches and develop/improve their training materials/methods? For example, did you find the materials encouraged you to adopt new or different training strategies on other training courses in which you are involved?
- 1.9 The materials are presented as prototypes with the anticipation that they (or parts of them) will be adapted and modified to meet country needs. Do you feel that this is a realistic expectation?

## 2. Evaluation of Usability and Adequacy

- 2.1. The introductory booklet describes the format of the materials (i.e. the organisation of the various components making up the units), how easy did you find it to understand this format, and to actually access the components making up the units?
- 2.2. Did you find the section in the introductory booklet on the selection of units and materials modification helpful? Should this be improved or expanded?
- 2.3. How useful did you find the sections in the introductory booklet on preparation for use of the materials, eg. the suggested sequence for examining the units), and on the training session? Were the advice and instructions clear and logical? Could they be improved?
- 2.4. Do the materials make realistic demands on the trainer regarding usage (including preparation time)?
- 2.5. Is the Trainers' Unit Schedule helpful in planning and scheduling the use of units? Are the approximate timings given realistic or should they be revised/abandoned?
- 2.6. Is sufficient guidance provided on the trainers' worksheets under suggested procedures and discussion points? If not, what should be provided?
- 2.7. How useful did you find the Workcards for drawing participants' attention to the learning objectives, and activities of each unit?
- 2.8. How appropriate is the structuring, frequency, variety and difficulty level of the various participant activities making up the units?
- 2.9. Do the participants' worksheets give enough or too much guidance?
- 2.10. Do the materials make sufficient allowance for trainees with varying levels of expertise/different backgrounds/experiences, etc..? Are the materials flexible enough for different purposes and target groups, and sufficiently varied and adaptable to local needs?
- 2.11. To what extent did you find the readings provided with the Units essential/useful/limited? Were many of the referenced texts already known to you/available in your country, if so which ones?
- 2.12. Are the overhead projector masters a useful component of the package? How could they be improved?
- 2.13. The materials are presented as a package of print based materials. Do you think that this medium is appropriate? If not, what other medium would you suggest?
- 2.14. Is the language used in the materials appropriate eg. suitable in style, tone and structure? Please give some examples to illustrate any problem areas.

### 3. Evaluation of quality, and practical aspects of use

- 3.1. How would you assess the appeal and accessibility of the page layouts, the readability of type, the usefulness of page headings and the numbering sequence adopted?
- 3.2. Are the resources, cost, time, facilities and organisation required, and the pre-requisites in terms of trainer knowledge, skills and attitudes, feasible and sensible?
- 3.3. Is the expectation of photocopying certain components for participants realistic?
- 3.4. Are the materials packaged to facilitate easy handling? Can you suggest ways of making the material easier to assemble and use?

### 4. Overall assessment of the materials

- 4.1. What is your overall assessment of the feasibility and practicality of the materials for use on educational administrator training courses in your country?
- 4.2. Overall, did you find that these materials made (or could make) some positive contribution to your work in the field of educational administrator training? If you have not yet used the materials, perhaps you could make some assessment of their potential contribution.
- 4.3. Please provide as much additional comment and observations on the materials as you wish .....

## ANNEX 5 - A SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY OF NEEDS

### TRAINING THIRD WORLD EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS - METHODS AND MATERIALS A SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO SELECTED QUESTIONS

Individuals and institutions co-operating in the research project were sent a questionnaire covering the scope and nature of existing educational administrator training provision, methods and materials used, training needs, and asking for comments and suggestions on the scope of the project (see Annex 3). 17 detailed responses were received from individuals in Third World countries, and representatives of international agencies and interested trainers in the west provided information and comments on selected items. The following pages provide a summary of the responses to part D of the questionnaire. Abbreviations are used to indicate responders, and a list of these is given at the end.

#### D. SCOPE OF PROJECT

Question D.13 : *Should the training materials developed by this project be programmes aimed at (1) school principals; (2) district education officers of equivalent; school inspectors/advisers; (4) other?*

UNESCO EPP - different materials for all three categories plus managers of educational development programmes and projects.

BREDA - all three; material for people at school level should be produced locally with the assistance of consultants

IIEP - District Education Officers, induction and refresher.

EDI - School Principals needs to be met at local and national level; DEOs, field administrators, school inspectors and supervisors: in-service.

CCEA (HARRIS) - all three critically important in Third World. In addition those concerned with curriculum development who often have knowledge and skills relating to content but who lack clarity in dealing with administrative problems such as the management of change and the management of resource provision.

NIGERIA (CALABAR) - all three + policy makers (planners)

B/L/S (IDM) - all three; specific factual information must be gathered in the country concerned; training for educational administration should be process training, rather than content training

TANZANIA (MANTEP) - how can materials produced in UK apply to Tanzania, or Nigeria etc... don't ignore the higher level administrators who cause the bottle necks...

KENYA (KUC) - priority order: secondary school principals, school inspectors/supervisors, DEO's

EGYPT (EL KOUSSY) - all three + classroom teachers & Ministry Officials

U.P.N. GUINEA - difficult to see how project is going to be of benefit to PNG; we design materials for PNG needs and individuals concerned

U.WEST INDIES - all three + administrators of tertiary institutions



ETHIOFIA - all three + regional/provincial personnel administrators, planners & statisticians, finance officer, purchase & store-managers.

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES - school principals & district officers and their staff.

INDIA (HYDERABAD) - all three

INDIA (NIEPA) - all three, but equally interested in other sectors of education eg. higher education and non-formal education administrators, and finance officers; also training of trainers in different fields.

SRI LANKA - school principals & educational supervisors

MALAYSIA (MESTI) - all three

MALAYSIA (U.S.M.) - all three

MAURITIUS (I/E) - school principals; school inspectors, supervisors and advisers

PAKISTAN (AIOU) - principals/managers; educational administrators; supervisors/inspectors; planners/policy makers

PHILIPPINES (INNOTECH) - all levels of and categories of personnel

Question D. 14: *What skills and areas of knowledge should the training materials be addressed to?*

UNESCO EFP - analytical forecasting skills; knowledge about environmental (socio-economic, cultural, political) constraints to educational change and practical/tactical ways to introduce innovations where points of entry seem promising

BREDA - management and administration with emphasis on the need for communication, cooperation, development and change

IIEP - induction and refresher of relevant skills for DEOs, especially personnel and financial management; orientation and sensitisation to broader problems.

CCEA (HARRIS) - The needs expressed at CCEA seminars include work in communication, leadership, decision making, motivation, staff supervision, delegation, evaluation, office routines and management of time. At more senior levels, there is an interest in organisational structure as an element in effective management. Also decentralisation is an issue of special concern.

NIGERIA (CALABAR) - quantitative analysis, economics of education, educational policies and social change, methodology of educational planning, supervision/inspection, decision-making, politics of education, cost-effectiveness, school plant management

B/L/S (IDM) - Knowledge: major administrative issues, decision making, problem solving, planning, supervision and motivation, delegation, group dynamics, substantive educational issues (curriculum, students, staff, finance, school & the community). Skills: analytical, planning, problem solving, communication performance. Attitudes: moving from X-theory influenced mgt. to Y-theory influenced mgt., creativity and lateral thinking...

TANZANIA (MANTEP) - theory of management, organisation, educational management; aspects of management and leadership, motivation etc.. aimed at senior level desk officers

KENYA (KUC) - financial management, skills of decision making and problem solving, project management, personnel management

EGYPT (EL KOUSSY) - planning & management using case studies derived from local situations

U.P.N.GUINEA - problems of local relevance for PNG needs

U.WEST INDIES - in addition to suggested topics, training materials addressed to issues and problems in delegation; personnel management, classroom evaluation including pupil assessment

ETHIOPIA - basic knowledge & skills for effective performance of their definite tasks; also, to introduce new methods and techniques in personnel's field of work or specialisation.

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES - skills & knowledge in the field of planning & evaluation, eg. skills connected with the assessment of curriculum implementation, impact of training & performance evaluation.

INDIA (HYDERABAD) - managerial skills; use of modern management techniques (including computers) in effective decision making.

INDIA (NIEPA) - current issues in education including policy & trends; various aspects of planning & administration; decentralisation & centralisation; mapping; mgt. of resources; behavioural aspects eg motivation, communication, decision-making, leadership etc...; skills in the areas of inspection & supervision; institutional & personnel evaluation, preparation of institutional plans, data collection & data analysis, projections, project formulation...

SRI LANKA - Technical skills: planning & programming; project formulation & implementation; progress control techniques; evaluation of educational programmes; curriculum development & management; school & classroom supervision; timetabling; managerial skills. Behavioural skills: motivation; communication; group dynamics; effective leadership and leadership training & decision making.

MALAYSIA (MESTI) - competencies in the management of curriculum and the instituting of curriculum improvement; leadership behaviours vis-a-vis curriculum change, team building for improved productivity, and school-community relations; competencies in the utilisation of management tools eg. management information systems, CPM/PERT, budgeting systems.

MALAYSIA (U.S.M.) - Management by Objectives; decision making; human relations skills; organisational behaviour.

MAURITIUS (I/E) - not specified

PAKISTAN (AIOU) - need identification, priority determining, policy making, plan formulation, budgeting, project formulation and implementation,, projections, cohort analysis, evaluation, training or personnel, management & supervision, information, decision making, resource identification & utilisation, economic analysis & evaluation of plans...

PHILIPPINES (INNOTECH) - administration & management; research, planning & innovation; and possibly communication skills, public relations and human relations

Question D. 15: *We have tentatively suggested some possible topic areas, and would welcome your comments...importance/feasibility....?*

*A. Assessing & improving the classroom performance of teachers.*

*B. Using microcomputers for administrative purposes in schools & District Education Officers*

*C. Implementing educational innovations in schools*

*D. Improving school/community links & relations*

*E. The management of resources*

*F. Gathering information & making decisions.*

UNESCO EPP - all topics important; a conceptual framework is needed for linking them and to facilitate the learners choice of areas in line with specific problem areas being faced - i.e. a modular approach

BREDA - the most important are C,D,E,F

IIEP - all except B, too early for micros

EDI - E = highest priority; A = a high priority; also C & B; D = lower priority. Others: communications training, the skills of flow-charting and diagraming, total project 'awareness'....

CCEA (HARRIS) - B is of growing importance in Third World, as yet progress has been minimal where a technological back up is absent. C is of critical importance, there has been a substantial waste of effort and money where strategies of change have not been understood. D: in most Third World countries a strong community input to the governance of schools, where adult population has had limited education there are extreme problems, even where a long tradition of education the problem of the community role is still uncertain. E: limited resources requires their effective use and the development of low cost resources, eg through co-operatives (Zambia). E: frequently requested by Ministries arranging workshops for supervision.

NIGERIA (CALABAR) - all good

B/L/S (IDM) - A,D,F: yes; B: interesting but possibly limited application potential; C: with emphasis on methods and process to identify desirable change innovation, to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate its results, and achieve participation and cooperation of all involved; E: IDM organising timetabling courses in some countries because bad scheduling results on average, in only 50% use of teacher & building capacity

TANZANIA (MANTEP) - A: no problem, problem lies with desk administrators; B: no, leave it out; C: already well covered; D: doesn't need special emphasis in Africa; E: relevant; F: "it is OK"; Most important topic areas are eg. planning, delegation, etc...i.e. management training for desk-men

KENYA (KUC) - A,E,F: yes; C: yes specifically project development, implementation for inspectors etc...; D: yes, particularly at basic education level because of Harambee movement relying on community funds etc.; B: too far in the future

EGYPT (EL KOUSSY) - A,D,E,F: yes; B: doubtful at present; C: yes to breakthrough 'petrified methods'

U.P.N.GUINEA - C,E: yes; D: important but can't satisfactorily be examined from outside PNG; F: worth discussing but could be too general; B: possibly; A: no

U.WEST INDIES - A,C,D,E,F: all require further attention; B: "it seems a little early to focus on the use of micromputers for administrative purposes in schools and district education offices"

ETHIOPIA - all except B; also: management functions; personnel management; financial management of school finance; leadership styles; organisational functions; performance appraisal; communication in management; educational planning.

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES - should emphasise the development of in-house evaluation as a pre-condition for and/or consequence of the introduction of educational innovations.

INDIA (HYDERABAD) - important skills are management of human resources, leadership, motivation, decision making; also technical skills.

INDIA (NIEPA) - all topics are important

SRI LANKA - all good

MALAYSIA (MESTI) - A: important/feasible; B: important and potentially feasible; C: important, useful as a starter module for other national modules; D: important but difficult, should start with the problem of management of conflicting interests in community politics, and the problem of sustaining interest in maintaining the links; E: important/feasible; F: important, need to provide a variety of models/systems according to the variety & complexity of decision making.

MALAYSIA (U.S.M.) - A: more for teacher training; B: important being the present trend; C,E: important; F: important especially in evaluation; D: feasible but not important in Malaysia.

MAURITIUS (I/E) - A,C,D,F: important; E: possibly; B: no

PAKISTAN (AIOU) - suggested topics alright but need to be supplemented by ones mentioned in answer to previous question

PHILIPPINES (INNOTECH) - all topics suggested are important and feasible; these topics are all encompassing & comprehensive for the purpose intended

Question D. 16: *Should the training materials be for the trainer or the trainee. i.e.: (a) ... materials that indicate to the trainer how he or she might design and execute a particular training task; or (b) ... materials for use on a taught course; or (c) ...self-instructional and individualised...*

UNESCO EPP - self-instructional individualised (there will never be enough developing country training capacity); need to develop guidelines for cost-effective dissemination techniques of such materials (synthesize Open University experiences)

BREDA - self-instructional and individualised (all materials should be for individual as well as for group work)

IIEP - self-instructional, even if no back up through specific local programmes; (a) & (b) could be elaborated later in the project.

EDI- (a) + (b); but emphasis on self-teaching materials, with later development of leaders' guides for use in presenting the materials.

CCEA (HARRIS) - not either-or, each strategy has its place, depends on the stage reached; priority order should be training trainees, provision of resources to be used by trainees under guidance of trainers.

NIGERIA (CALABAR) - both; trainer's effectiveness relate to the quality of the trainees produced

B/L/S (IDM) - depends on conditions; if (c) might go for correspondence courses in addition to regular courses; if only (a) might need to do more training of the trainers themselves..

TANZANIA (MANTEP) - all three, depending on the country where they will be applied; would prefer (a) & (b)

KENYA (KUC) - (a) & (b); problems of motivation, time, need for certification/recognition... ie what incentive for self-instructional materials use

EGYPT (EL KOUSSY) - (a) & (c), learning is on the whole more verbal than practical and there is more teaching than learning; emancipation from this trend is most difficult, although lip service advocates against it

U.P.N.GUINEA - we design our own materials... but external ideas may be useful, even if discarded....

U.WEST INDIES - a combination of all three should be used to package training materials, eg. some best organised as (c), some as (a) & (b); but at this stage emphasis should be placed on producing materials for use by trainees in a taught course

ETHIOPIA - (c)

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES - should be varied to include those designed for the trainer as well as those designed for the trainee, with a little emphasis on the latter; especially (c)

INDIA (HYDERABAD) - first develop training materials for the trainers and then manuals for the trainees.

INDIA (NIEPA) - all three alternatives relevant because different kinds of programmes run

SRI LANKA - would prefer type (a).

MALAYSIA (MESTI) - top priority to (c), if resources permit (a) & (b)

MALAYSIA (U.S.M.) - (b) is more appropriate in Malaysia because of the varied background of school administrators.

MAURITIUS (I/E) - (b) & (c)

PAKISTAN (AIOU) - all three

PHILIPPINES (INNOTECH) - materials for trainee & trainer separately developed

The list of institutions individuals replying

UNESCO,EPP	Division of Educational Planning & Policy,Unesco, Paris,France
BREDA	Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa, Senegal
IIEP	International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris, France
EDI	Economic Development Institute of the World Bank, Washington, USA
CCEA (HARRIS)	Harry Harris, Executive Director,Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration
NIGERIA (CALABAR)	University of Calabar, Calabar
B/L/S (IDM)	Institute of Development Management, Gaborone, Botswana
TANZANIA (MANTEP)	Management Training for Educational Personnel Institute, Bagamoya
KENYA (KUC)	Kenyatta University College, Nairobi
EGYPT (EL.KOUSSY)	Dr. A el-Koussy, Giza, Egypt
U.P.N.GUINEA	The University of Papua New Guinea, Port Moresby
U.WEST INDIES	School of Education, University of West Indies, Cave Hill,Barbados
ETHIOPIA	Management & Training Service, Ministry of Education,Addis Ababa
UNITED AR. EMIRATES	United Arab Emirates University, Abu Dhabi
INDIA (HYDERABAD)	Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad
INDIA (NIEPA)	National Institute for Educational Planning & Administration, New Delhi
SRI LANKA	Director of Education(Training), Ministry of Education, Colombo
MALAYSIA (MESTI)	Malaysian Education Staff Training Institute, Kuala Lumpur
MALA SIA (U.S.M.)	Universiti Sains Malaysia, Minden, Penang
MAURITIUS (I/E)	Mauritius Institute of Education, Reduit
PAKISTAN (AIOU)	Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad
PHILIPPINES - (INNOTECH)	Innotech Regional Centre for Education Innovational and Technology, Quezon City

## ANNEX 6 - A DESCRIPTION OF THE PROJECT MATERIALS

### 'MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE'

The overall aim of the module is to provide prototype materials for a study of the management of educational change. The materials are for use on courses for practising headteachers in Third World countries. The theme is covered through a series of six units grouped under two topic headings.

#### TOPIC A: Key Issues in Educational Innovation

The topic is covered through four units:-

- Unit 1. An Introduction to Educational Innovation and the Innovation Process
- Unit 2. The Problem of Implementation
- Unit 3. Strategies of Implementation
- Unit 4. Theoretical Perspectives and Research into Educational Innovation

The overall aim of units making up the topic is: to examine key issues in educational innovation, with particular attention to the nature of innovations and the innovation process, the problems of implementing innovations and the strategies of implementation; to relate the consideration of these issues to the practical experience of participants in managing change; and to assess the contribution of the theoretical and research literature towards improving understanding of these key issues.

#### TOPIC B: Managing Change in Schools

The topic is covered through two units:-

- Unit 5. Management and Change - an Introduction
- Unit 6. Resource Management and the Change Process

The overall aim of the units making up this topic is: to consider school management tasks, processes and organisational structures and the implications of the introduction of change for the role of the school head; and, focussing on one critical management task, to examine the management of resources, with a view to identifying key considerations for the successful introduction and implementation of change in schools.

#### THE FORMAT:

The units making up the package are designed in such a way as to provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete one to two day 'learning experience'. Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit. Trainers' Worksheets provide information for the person running the activity, briefly outlining the aim of the activity, and suggesting procedures and discussion points. The Participants' Worksheets describe the activity to be undertaken and provide space for the various responses required. Worksheet Materials are provided to complement some activities. These are filed in sequence together with overhead projector transparency masters, and optional activities where applicable. The unit commences with a two page introduction for trainers which gives it's aims, objectives, treatment (with a list of activities), an outline summary and a comment on timing. A Reading File is associated with each unit. An Introductory booklet provides an overview of the package, drawing attention to its features and suggesting how best it could be used.

## ANNEX 7 - A REPORT ON THE SRI LANKA WORKSHOP

REPORT ON THE USE AND EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT MATERIALS, 'MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE' AT A WORKSHOP HELD IN SRI LANKA, 17-30 April, 1985

### Introduction

This report describes the use and evaluation of the project materials 'Managing Educational Change' at a Workshop held at the Staff College for Educational Administrators, Sri Lanka. It presents an assessment of the materials' strengths and weaknesses, derived from observations of mini-courses based on the materials, findings from evaluations undertaken, and comments and feedback obtained from working groups who examined the materials. On the basis of these, conclusions are drawn concerning the future strategy for modification and development of the materials.

### Background

The opportunity to evaluate the project materials arose from earlier contacts made with the SCEA by Paul Hurst and recommendations that an Education Seminar be run at the College on materials preparation and development. The Workshop, supported by the British Council had as its aims: the evaluation, adaptation and development of materials originating from the project, by field-testing them in the Staff College for Educational Administration and; the consideration of methodologies for training educational administrators and associated materials needs in Sri Lanka in order to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College.

In order to achieve the objectives, the workshop was designed and structured so that the actual field testing of ODA funded project materials was introduced as part of an overall learning experience. This involved an examination of issues surrounding training methods and materials, the preparation and running of mini-courses using the UK project materials which embody a particular training strategy, an identification of problems encountered in using the materials and an attempt to apply the lessons learnt in a final materials development phase.

### The materials

The package of materials on 'Managing Educational Change' is made up of six units, divided into two topic areas, 'Key Issues in Educational Innovation' (Units 1-4) and 'Managing Change in Schools' (Units 5,6). It was not possible to field test all six in the time available, and, as it was felt that each unit 'stood alone', a decision was made to undertake a detailed evaluation of the units making up the second topic; Units 5 & 6. In addition, working groups were asked to undertake a critical analysis of Units 1-4.

### Arrangement for Field-testing Units 5 & 6

*Training Teams:* Two groups of three SCEA trainers were asked to study the two Units and prepare and run mini-courses based on the materials. The mini-courses would last for one and a half days with two groups of 'guinea pig' participants (Grade 1 & 2 secondary school principals).

*Evaluation Teams:* Two groups of three SCEA trainers were asked to study the materials, prepare for and undertake an evaluation of the mini-courses.



Each member of the above teams was provided with a copy of the relevant Unit, together with a copy of the 'Introduction and Overview' (to the package of materials). They were advised to study the latter very carefully before commencing their preparation work.

#### *The Schedule*

Day 1 (pm) and 2; preparation of lessons and evaluation plans

Day 3 and 4 (am): Mini-courses 5 & 6 run concurrently and evaluated

#### Some problems associated with the exercise

The schedule had originally been arranged so that there would be a weekend in between the preparation for and actual running of the mini-courses. Due to local factors it was not possible to stick to this schedule and there was therefore no 'spare time' for the teams to finalise their preparation. There was also limited opportunity for any materials to be typed and duplicated in preparation for the courses. The training teams relied on photocopying the materials as presented in the package, even though some questions and activities on the worksheets and some Readings were not in fact to be used.

#### Evaluation Procedures

A range of data was collected during the Workshop. This included formal evaluations of the mini-courses undertaken by the evaluation teams, working groups' reports on the materials in general, informal discussion with the participants, and observations. A summary of sources of information is given below.

#### *Evaluation undertaken by evaluation teams*

Analysis of Units

Observation Schedule of mini-courses 5 & 6

Questionnaire completed by trainees

Interviews with trainers - with interview schedule

#### *Evaluation undertaken by Project*

Observation of mini-courses

Interview with trainers

Informal discussions with participants (trainers, evaluators, trainees)

Letter written by trainees

MEC Evaluation guide - completed by trainers

#### *Working Groups*

A detailed assessment of Units 1-4

Phase 1 of Workshop - Identification of issues concerning Sri Lankan methods and materials needs

Phase 2 of Workshop - Identification of strengths and weaknesses of materials Units 1-6

Phase 3 of Workshop - SCEA strategy for materials development

#### The Mini-courses - An Overview of Findings and Assessments

#### Actual Usage of Materials

1. The materials making up Units 5 & 6 were on the whole used as presented, with both groups of trainers following the structure and sequence of content, with some selection of questions and sub-activities on the Worksheets. Frequent reference was made to local contextual factors and issues, however no attempt was made to introduce any new materials and the trainers were not very innovative in terms of introducing any new activities. (This is in marked contrast to the trial in Thailand where a range of local materials and activities were introduced.)

Extensive use was made of the Reading files, although sometimes the readings were only introduced, and their relevance to the sub-topic of study not made explicit. Use was also made of some of the Optional Readings, but not of the Optional Activities.

2. The mini-courses developed by the two training teams were well planned and designed and were presented through a team teaching approach. The level of trainers' skills varied considerably, and what was most notable was that all the trainers found difficulty in effectively adopting the group-oriented approach required by the materials. (Further comments on this point are made below (9) under evaluation of strategy.)
3. The major practical problems encountered in using the materials were: Insufficient time to go through the material in detail in order to plan the mini-course; shortage of time to prepare modified versions of the Worksheets and selected reading file; and problems associated with organising training sessions based on group work and active participation by trainees.
4. The suggested procedures and discussion points given on the trainers worksheets were followed to a large extent by the Unit 6 trainers, less so by the Unit 5 trainers. This was the major difference between the two mini-courses. Thus, whilst Unit 6 trainers adopted the procedures suggested by the materials, and actually utilised the group activities to encourage trainees to analyse the problems and practical realities of school administrations, before attempting through discussion and plenary presentation to develop principles and present theory, the Unit 5 trainers deliberately chose to reverse the procedure (i.e. to start with a presentation of theory and then engage participants in activities. The result was that the mini-course consisted predominantly of a series of mini-lectures, with some activities amended. The point of the activities was therefore very often lost.

As the evaluation team observed, this training group was not in actuality providing a realistic field-testing of the materials.

5. Overall the mini-courses were perceived to be successful, effective and enjoyable. The trainees appeared to like the materials and the approaches inherent in them very much, they were satisfied with the experience and believed that they had learnt something during the one and a half days; the trainers had found the experience very demanding and stimulating, and felt that they had learnt a lot both about methods and also about the topic 'Managing Educational Change'.
6. The main criticisms levelled by the trainers and trainees at the mini-courses based on the materials, were that the timing for preparation and running the courses was inadequate; that there was a lack of relevant local materials (case studies) and readings; that the field test was artificial and lacked the reality of normal courses in terms of time, advance preparation, size and nature of the client groups; that there was too great an emphasis on one particular method; and that the units used pre-supposed a level of knowledge amongst participants which didn't exist.

7. The evaluation did not include any instruments to assess the extent to which unit objectives were met. However it appeared, through participants' responses to some open-ended questions on the evaluation questionnaire, that there were some learning gains in terms of new concepts learnt. A general assessment suggested that the activities in the materials assisted towards helping the objectives to be realised.

#### Evaluation of Strategy

8. The approach adopted in the materials (learning through an analysis of problems was felt by the trainers to be very effective. It was noted as being relevant to their needs, realistic despite the constraints faced by them, and especially suited to the training of adults.
9. The strategy of encouraging active learner participation was thought to be appropriate, and the learners seemed to enjoy the work. The disadvantage is that it requires considerable inputs by the trainers (especially in training design) and is difficult to accomplish effectively within the normal time constraints of course schedules. However, although the trainers thought that the strategy was appropriate, as was noted above (3) one group did not actually adopt the strategy suggested by the materials. It is interesting to record the trainers justification for adopting the approach which they did:-

"... sometimes they (participants) can't identify their own problems because they don't have the background knowledge to see that they are facing problems... they only mention symptoms not real problems...I don't know if this is a cultural problem here...we find in our training programmes that principals although aware of problems can't crystallise them in thought and express them in management terms. When we give them some sort of structural and analytical ability first their activities are much better... their responses are much better..... The problem is that our trainees are not culturally attuned to looking at themselves and analysing their organisations... Sometimes they come to training expecting to find tailor-made solutions so they don't bother to analyse what they are facing in schools. They don't think carefully to develop their own strategy. We agree that the best method is to focus on problems, if we can have skills as trainers to do this, and then build the theory on the problem. But we in the Third World have difficulties as trainers".

The last statement is highly significant. The problems resulting from a possible mismatch between methods and materials were highlighted at various phases of the work. If trainers are familiar with a predominantly positive training strategy, (giving lectures), they may well encounter very grave difficulties when required to adopt a more discovery oriented approach, as was the case with the project materials. Without some training and familiarisation with new methods and materials, it may well be that they are unable to make the necessary adjustment in their method, and that the materials will do more harm than good. The difficulty here is that in our attempts to evaluate the materials, we find ourselves making evaluative statements about the trainers; it may well be that the problems do lie with the fact that the materials are actually unsuitable in certain contexts.

A few examples of problems encountered will help to illustrate this dilemma:-

The way in which activities were introduced in the mini-courses was poor. In general, the trainers failed to make clear the purpose of the activity, its precise objective, and its linkage to previous work and overall unit (mini-course) objectives, the procedures to be adopted etc... In the all important de-briefing and discussion session, trainers reception of individual group reports was unsupportative and encouragement, promptings, and search for clarification was minimal. The sessions were often very badly organised and run, with some trainers expending considerable energy on writing group's responses word for illegible word on the OHP. Whilst some discussion of issues was stimulated, trainers had difficulty in synthesising reports, developing ideas and concepts, and building theory around the issues generated through the activity. Thus the fundamental purpose of drawing on the practical problems of the trainees to build up theoretical knowledge and understanding of issues surrounding the management of educational change was lost. Significantly the training group who were more successful in utilising the materials, were notably 'less academically' oriented, and less experienced as SCEA trainers.

10. The overall aims of the module on 'Managing Educational Change' were felt to be realistic, and trainers thought that these were realised in the materials. It was suggested however, that care is required, and that it should be stressed that some degree of flexibility must be employed if the materials are to be successfully implemented with different client groups.

The theme managing change, is a good one, and particularly significant to Sri Lanka where there is much current emphasis on management reform and increasing attention focused on the need for greater planning at the school level. An examination of the role of the principal as an 'agent of change' helps to increase awareness of the 'development' as against the maintenance aspects of educational administration. The selection and treatment of the theme was also thought to be good, although some additional topics could be included such as: inventoring resources, store management, supervision, problem-solving etc... There was general agreement that the materials with some adaptation and modification were relevant and valuable for use in the Sri Lankan context, and could be exploited to form the basis of a mini-course or extended for use on a longer course. The materials were felt to be well balanced and have a coherent structure, although a few suggestions as to where there should be greater/less emphasis were noted.

11. In order to ensure learning objectives are fully achieved a more realistic time schedule is needed, and the training sessions should involve greater participation by the trainees.

The trainer education element in the trainers' worksheets was felt to be very helpful. If the materials are carefully studied and understood by the trainers the resulting training courses will be tremendously successful. They also are valuable in enabling trainers to develop their own materials and strategies. The approach adopted in the materials is likely to stimulate trainers and Sri Lankan trainers have in fact already embarked on materials development incorporating aspects of the strategy embodied in the materials. Certainly, they hope to improve their future training courses along these lines. The materials are a very good guide and a practice for the trainers to re-assess their strategies and modify them.

12. The projects' expectation that the prototype materials could be adapted and modified for local use was thought to be very realistic allowing as it does the accommodation of variations in practices from country to country.

Evaluation of suitability and adequacy

13. The 'Introduction and Overview' had been carefully studied, and although some trainers and evaluators had at first found it rather confusing, after a second reading it had greatly assisted them in their use of the Units. However, some of the criticisms which were made of the materials would suggest that comments concerning selection of materials, introduction of local materials, the use of alternative methods etc... had not been fully absorbed. Some trainers suggested that the section on selection and materials modification should be expanded.

Whilst it was felt that the materials do make realistic demands on the trainer, the main complaint was that the effective use of the materials requires considerable expenditure of time and effort, which might not be feasible.

14. The Trainers' Unit Schedule needs to be revised as trainees required much more time than was suggested for every activity. However, the schedule did help trainers to plan the training sessions systematically. It was also felt that sufficient guidance was given on the trainers worksheets, and that the workcards were very useful. However, it must be noted that neither of the training teams actually handed out the workcards to the trainees. It was suggested that the Worksheets should include a little more by way of introduction to each sub-topic/theme/activity.

The readings were very useful, but the inclusion of local settings would add to clarity and explanations. Most of the readings are available in Sri Lanka but not in wide circulation, or assembled in this manner. The Overhead projector masters were seen as a useful component, but more are required, and these could be more elaborate (eg. using cartoons as in some Open University materials). However, the point was made that the equipment is not widely available and that trainers need to learn to use the OHP more effectively.

15. The structuring, frequency, variety and difficulty level of the various participant activities making up the units were felt to be appropriate to local conditions, but certain modifications are desirable. Some activities, for example, pre-suppose that the clientele has a background knowledge in the topic area, which is not always the case. It was also made clear that the Units do not appear to 'stand alone'. The trainers developing courses on Units 5 & 6 felt that they were at a considerable disadvantage having not 'done' the earlier units, or had time to study them adequately.

16. A package of print based material is appropriate to Sri Lankan needs, but the quality of print is not satisfactory. There is some suggestion that tapes and filmstrips could also be profitably used, if equipment becomes more widely available.

17. The language used in the materials was felt to be appropriate (style, tone and structure). Attention was however drawn to the problem of the actual use of English medium. Sinhala is the medium of instruction and therefore materials are needed in this language.

### Evaluation of quality and practical aspects of use

18. Readability of type needs improvement, and some methods of bolding, casing, underlining, spacing could be attempted to improve page appearance. The page headings and numbering systems were felt to be good although the separate files were found at first to be confusing. One suggestion made was that Reading File numbers should correspond with activity numbers in some way.
19. Time scheduling is unfeasible. In addition it was noted that trainers would take some time to adjust to the novel mode of presentation required by the materials, as they may lack the necessary prerequisite training skills.
20. The expectation of photocopying certain components of the materials, in particular the reading file, is realistic. It would be better however, if preparation time is available to photocopy materials.
21. The way the materials are packaged takes time to get used to. One suggestion was that the materials be assembled into a book, with odd and even numbered pages for trainers and trainees respectively. Alternatively, it would be good to have one reference 'book type' copy for trainers, rather than having a bundle of loose papers.

### General Assessment of Materials - Summary of Main Points

#### STRENGTHS

*Coverage:* Topics and objectives are applicable and relevant to the Third World. Coverage is comprehensive and relevant to Sri Lanka. Current reforms in Sri Lanka stress the role of the principal as a change agent. There is a need to encourage principals to adopt a more change oriented approach and move from maintenance tasks to development tasks. The exposure to educational practices and innovations in other countries is valuable.

*Structuring:* Objectives, scope and sequencing are applicable and relevant in Sri Lanka. There is a good co-ordination between objectives and content, and the activities are such that the objectives are capable of being achieved.

*Format:* Flexibility good. Units could be used flexibly with local modification as required. There are opportunities for extending and adapting exercises and activities to meet local needs. There is room for such expansion given, eg. in the options.

*Approach:* The activity method and problem-centered approach, with sessions moving from the known to unknown is welcomed. The materials provide a valuable model/guide particularly for inexperienced Third World trainers. It will help trainers to re-assess their strategies and modify them. The materials provide an opportunity for trainers to adopt a team teaching approach which is a viable one.

#### WEAKNESSES

*Timing:* The allocations given in the Units are inadequate, and do not allow for any degree of flexibility with respect to timing, or take into account different levels of learners ability

*The Units as a basis for courses:* It is unrealistic to consider each unit as an independent entity. For this to be viable there would need to be more input. Given this, it would be difficult to use the materials on a short course, longer time would be required. If a longer course

was to be mounted, the question arises as to whether one can actually justify a course on Managing Educational Change.

*Reading File:* There is an insufficiency of Third World reference material. The reading file needs to be available in local language and provided in advance to trainees.

*Content:* The material pre-supposes a basic knowledge with the content area. Local trainees need more supplementary material.

*Approach:* Instructions given are possibly too restrictive/prescriptive. Trainers lacking experience may follow instructions too closely without adopting and modifying them to local needs.

*Activities:* These would need to be amended if the materials are used in a pre-service course because principals have no prior experience on which to draw. Difficult to use with a heterogeneous group because activities require sharing of common experiences

#### Recommendations for improvement

On the basis of the evaluation and assessments made during the workshop, the participants made a number of recommendations for improvement of the materials themselves and for revising the instructions (Introduction and Overview) to users of the materials.

- re-schedule timing allocations
- stress need for local reading materials to be prepared and provided in advance, and need for some readings to be deleted
- suggest materials are sent out in advance with set of questions and short assignments
- provide supplementary knowledge component
- highlight importance of trainer flexibility, i.e. for trainer to go outside the format and prepare local materials
- highlight where/when other methods could be used
- suggest points where case studies could be used
- simplify details of instructions
- provide more detailed introduction/preamble for each unit and each activity
- give more guidance to trainers on summing up and discussion points
- provide assistance on how to select activities/sub-activities
- emphasise the importance of there being adequate trainer preparation time

#### Broader implications of the Workshop in Sri Lanka

In addition to the preparation and dissemination of prototype materials to meet Third World needs in the training of educational administrators, one major objective of the Project is to stimulate local initiatives in materials development and encourage the use of innovative training methods and materials. The following additional comments can be made concerning the broader implications of the Workshop in Sri Lanka.

1. The Workshop was not only a very useful opportunity to evaluate the ODA-funded project materials in a developing country context, but also provided participants with considerable experience in utilising prototype materials requiring a particular and generally unfamiliar methodology, and in testing, evaluating and adapting materials. The impact of these new methods and materials was evident during the materials writing phase, and it is to be hoped that this momentum will be maintained in coming months and that the materials produced

by the Staff College will continue to improve. (It would be useful to visit the Staff College later in the year to see what progress has been made in materials development, whether work has continued on the materials outlines initiated at the Workshop, and to what extent a wider range of methods have actually been assimilated into training approaches and materials development).

2. Working groups were asked to draw up a list of recommendations on future SCEA strategy with respect to developing materials on 'Managing Educational Change'. The following notes are based on the tape recordings made of report back sessions:-

*Transcript of a Group Report*

"The Staff College has written a lot of materials for training of various types of educational administrators ranging from Regional Directors of Education to those of Type 11 and 111 School Principals. They have also used them in their various training programmes with success. A feature of these materials is that they are more theory and knowledge based. Of course a lot of practical work has also been done in the contact sessions. But the SCEA materials are not that practice and action based as the ULIE Project materials. The Working group felt that this bias for theory is due to the fact that:-

- (a) Management training in education in Sri Lanka is a very recent development;
- (b) That Sri Lankan educational administrators have still not got a sound knowledge base in theory due to many factors.

The materials that the Staff College have so far produced are very good and very much suited to our local requirements. The Working Group however felt that these materials if revised with a practical and action bias in line with the ULIE Project materials, would serve a greater purpose... Moreover, the ULIE materials, with some adaptation and local examples put into the reading file can profitably be used in Sri Lanka too; in both face to face contact sessions and distance management education modules. In doing so some materials in the reading file and the corresponding activities in the Worksheets that are of no relevance to Sri Lankan situation need to be deleted and in their place reading materials and corresponding activities in the Worksheets that are of local nature will have to be substituted. These have again to be adapted to suit the participants and the nature and duration of the training programmes. For although all principals do similar functions in schools, the calibre, acumen and understanding of the Type 11 & 111 Principals and Principals of Type 1a & b schools have a marked difference. The level of difficulty of the training programmes and modules used must be varied to suit the participating principals. Instead of leaving this aspect of varying the content, reading file, and worksheets to individual trainers, who too differ in their capability, it would be worthwhile for the Staff College itself to give definite guidelines in these matters, particularly to the SMA in the various districts, whose main task is to train Type 11 and 111 School Principals..."



Other group reports highlighted the following issues:-

*Translation*

Organise a project for translating English language reading material into Sinhala and Tamil. Translation should be undertaken by SCEA faculty who would be paid a fee.

*Readings*

Introductory readings should be prepared for the existing Units on Change. These together with selections of existing readings should be sent out to trainees at least 2 weeks in advance of training courses.

Specific cases of recent developments in education in Sri Lanka and other developing countries should be included in the reading materials

*Additional Materials*

A strategy is required to organise a short term workshop to write case study materials. These materials would be tested and revised for use on training courses.

*Materials improvement*

To facilitate delivery by the trainers and comprehension by trainees, materials should be adopted to include diagrams and illustrations.

*Theory component*

The theory inputs could be presented in a self-instructional format.

*Media*

A project should be set up at the SCEA to prepare TV programmes in support of materials on MEC.

*Materials Data Bank*

Information about training materials should be disseminated to trainers and the Staff College and at District Management Centres, through a newsletter.

*Training Sessions:*

The module being based on the activity method depends for its effectiveness (in part) on the level of participant interaction during the training sessions. An initial group activity, ice-breaker, would help promote more active participation.

3. The materials development phase of the Workshop generated considerable enthusiasm and five specific materials writing initiatives were commenced. The materials started at the workshop were on the following themes:

- An introduction to educational change
- Innovation at school level
- Some aspects of staff development
- School supervision
- Delegation (modification of an existing SCEA module)

These could form the basis of a useful 3 - 4 week course for school principals on Managing Educational Change.

4. A few further points can be made concerning training methods and tactics:

The workshop highlighted a range of training methods. It was clear that there was confusion amongst some participants as to what the various methods involved, how and when they could be most effectively used etc.. There was no time available during the Workshop to examine the appropriateness and selection of alternative methodologies. However, there is ample training experience in the College and this together with the Project document 'Educational Administrator Training Methods - A Guide', could usefully be exploited for the purposes of staff development.

The SCEA is seriously underequipped in AV resources. Moreover, the use of existing resources, such as the overhead projector, leaves much to be desired. The SCEA is very keen to exploit audio and video facilities in its operations, and this would be a highly desirable development. As a first step the SCEA could usefully give some thought to alternative strategies and applications of these media, and draw up proposals for utilisation and programme development.

If SCEA is to progress in using a wider range of training methods and developing training materials which require more participatory approaches and elaborate training tactics there is a clear need for some attention to be given to staff development in these areas. There is little point in spending time and effort in these directions if the staff are unable to adapt or lack the skills to exploit non-lecture based methodology.

5. It would seem to be highly desirable for the ODA project to undertake some form of follow-up later in the year, particularly if there are positive developments in materials preparation at the Staff College. Such a visit would provide an opportunity to further evaluate the impact of the project materials, with respect both to steps taken to adapt and use the materials in Sri Lanka, and also to assessing the extent to which methods embodied in the materials are being adopted by the SCEA trainers.

#### Brief summary of plans for improving the package of materials

It was notable that the Sri Lankans in drawing up plans for the materials development phase of the Workshop, chose not to follow through the ideas which had been put forward for modifying the package of materials as such. However, all the materials development initiatives embarked upon were clearly influenced by the project materials, both in terms of topic areas, but more significantly with respect to methodology. The latter feature was very encouraging in that it suggests that the aim of stimulating the use of innovative methods and materials was realised. However the fact that no steps were taken to modify our materials was disappointing. We can surmise some possible reasons for this apparent rejection, in addition to the simple fact that they might be being rejected (although feedback comments would suggest otherwise):-

- (a) The materials plans revealed a strong element of re-inventing the (our) wheel. One topic had a clear parallel in one of our Units; the group planning this set of materials hadn't actually studied this particular unit in depth

- (b) We cannot ignore the concept of ownership in materials use. Many trainers are unwilling to use materials which they haven't had a hand in developing, choosing, or at least standing over some period of time. It takes time for trainers to assimilate a new set of materials into their bag of tricks.
- (c) There was a strong indication throughout the workshop that we would be modifying the materials for use in Sri Lanka; i.e. the various recommendations made for the improvement of materials were directed at us; we would be doing this work.

#### Conclusions from workshop on areas in need of improvement

##### *Content:*

It does not seem to be viable or desirable for us to undertake any major modifications to the content of the package of materials on Managing Educational Change. If we start to include/delete sub-themes as suggested by the Sri Lankan trainers, we run the risk of providing materials which may be suitable for Sri Lanka but not for other contexts. No amount of adaptation by us will make the package suitable for use in all Third World contexts. Since overall there was positive feedback on the content, and the criticisms and comments for improvement were confined to detail, any alteration would seem to be a waste of effort. Steps could however be taken to include more Third World extracts in the Reading File

##### *Approach*

There were no major criticisms on this, and no alterations appear warranted. However, given the demands made on the trainers to adopt an unfamiliar approach, it would seem advisable to pay greater attention on Trainers' Worksheets to providing additional guidelines, including further discussion points, stressing key issues and concepts, and suggesting points at which alternative methods could be utilised, and local readings introduced if available. Trainers Unit Guides need to highlight pre-requisite knowledge.

##### *Format and Treatment*

Major revisions are clearly required to the booklet 'Introduction and Overview' to meet some of the criticisms concerning utilisation of the materials, timing and scheduling of courses based on the units, selection of units (they may not stand alone without introductions), adaptation for local use, preparation for use and organisation of training sessions, etc...

##### *Quality of Packaging and Layout*

Some re-assessment of packaging and layout would seem to be desirable, not the least any final version must be produced on a quality printer.

## ANNEX B - SRI LANKA FOLLOW-UP STUDY

The annex presents the two instruments used in the follow-up study

- (a) - the interview schedule which was followed (approximately)
- (b) - the questionnaire which staff were given at the interview and asked to fill in and return the next day.

The responses of ten staff are summated and included in the schedules.

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## SRI LANKA FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION STUDY

TO

"THE NATIONAL TRAINING WORKSHOP ON

THE PREPARATION OF MATERIALS FOR MANAGING CHANGE IN SCHOOLS"

Organised by the Sri Lanka Staff College for Educational Administration and the University of London Institute of Education, Research and Materials Development Project: Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials.

IN APRIL 1985

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### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this evaluation exercise is to obtain information on the overall impact of the workshop. The feedback we receive will help us to assess the project outcomes and will be useful in guiding the design of any future research and materials development project. We also hope some of the information may be of value to SCEA.

There are two major components to the evaluation, interviews and a questionnaire. The former will examine some general issues concerning the workshop and its impact, the latter will focus on more specific questions of training methodology and materials.

Thank you for your co-operation in this exercise and please be as frank as possible in your answers.

### (a) INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

In April 1985 you were involved in a national workshop on the preparation of materials for Managing Change in Schools. As you will recall this was in three phases:

Phase I: An identification of issues concerning the design and implementation of training programmes.

Phase II: The preparation, running and evaluation of a mini-course based on a package of materials 'Managing Educational Change'.

Phase III: An examination of lessons learnt and their application through the initiation of materials preparation.

#### 1. The 1985 Workshop - Some General Questions

1.1 At the time, did the workshop come up to your expectations?

*Think so (4)*

*Yes (5)*

*No (1) ("expected to get experience in using role plays and case studies")*

1.2 When you think back to the event, what was the most memorable feature?

*Preparation and running of the mini-course (4)*

*New insights (2)*

*Group activities in mini-courses (2)*

*Materials development (2)*

1.3 What did you like least about it?

*Lack of time for discussions (3)*

*Evaluations of mini-courses (2)*

*Phase 1 discussions - identifying issues of methods and materials at SCEA (1)*

*No comment (4)*

1.4. What shortcomings did it have?

*Lack of time to prepare and run mini-courses (4)*

*Mini-course too rigid (1)*

*Too much concentration on a few methods*

*Phase 3 (materials preparation) too short (4)*

1.5 If the clock could be put back and if we could start all over again, what changes would you like introduced into the workshop?

*More time for materials preparation (5)*

*More emphasis on training trainers (3)*

*Experts present a model course (2)*

1.6 Have your views about the workshop changed in anyway over the last year?

*No (the majority)*

*"At the time I found it useful but limited, over time I have found myself using some materials and feeling more positive"*

*"I sometimes think back on it and remember useful things about it"*

## 2. Workshop Impact

2.1 The workshop had a number of objectives, some were explicit some implicit. To what extent do you feel that the following aims and objectives were achieved at the time?

	Not at all	To some extent	To a great extent	Difficult to say
The evaluation of a package of materials on Managing Educational Change	-	6	4	-
The development of materials for "Managing Change in Schools"	-	6	4	-
The identification and examination of key issues in the design & implementation of training at SCEA	-	6	4	-
Encouraging you to think about your own training methods	-	3	7	-
Giving you confidence to try out new methods	1	2	7	-
Improving your skills as a trainer	1	4	5	-
Providing you with new insights into materials development process	-	6	4	-
Improving your skills as a materials writer	-	7	3	-
Stimulating the materials development process at SCEA.	-	7	3	-

2.2 How would you rate the workshop overall along the following dimensions:-

	Considerable	Moderate	Slight	None	Difficult to say
Usefulness (a)	6	3	1	-	-
Effectiveness (b)	4	6	-	-	-
Successfulness (c)	4	6	-	-	-
Relevance (d)	6	4	-	-	-
Enjoyment/ Interest (e)	7	2	-	-	1

*Comments:* (b) - "helping us to think along new lines"  
 (c) - "time constraints were a major problem"  
 (d) - "materials need to be modified for local use"  
 (e) - "Too much work .... too tiring"

- 2.3. Our major concern is to attempt to assess whether the workshop and its various activities were of any lasting value. What is your personal view as to its longer term impact on:-

	Considerable	Moderate	Slight	None	Difficult to say
A. SCEA in general					
(i) Course design process	2	2	3	1	2
(ii) Materials development process	2	6	1	-	1
(iii) Training strategy/ methods used	1	5	1	-	3
B. Faculty members in general	-	-	-	-	1
C. Yourself	4	4	1	-	1

- 2.4. Please would you elaborate on the influence on yourself. For example, in which area of your own activities over the past year have you been able to apply any aspect of the workshop and in what way?

*Through the inclusion of more activities - giving participants an opportunity to draw on their own experience (5)*  
*Including activities in the distance teaching materials (3)*  
*Using team techniques (2)*  
*Developing exercises (3)*

### 3. The trialling of "Managing Educational Change"

Two units from the package Managing Educational Change were trialled during the workshop.

Unit 5 Management and Change - An Introduction  
 Unit 6 Resource Management and the Change Process

In addition, a team analysed and assessed Units 1-4.

What was your role during the mini-course .....

- 3.1 Please respond to the following questions where applicable:-

	Strongly Agree	Tend to Agree	Uncertain	Tend to Disagree	Strongly Disagree
(a) The package of materials, MEC, were reasonably successful when used with a group of Sri Lankan principals as a basis for a mini- course on:					
- Management and Change	-	5	1	-	-
- Resource Management ...	-	4	-	-	-

	Stongly Agree	Tend to Agree	Uncert ain	Tend to Disagre	Strongly disagree
(b) The materials as a whole provided a useful model which with some adaptation & modification could be used by SCEA	8	2	-	-	-
(c) The use of the project mats. & the subsequent discussion of them, helped to stimulate materials development at SCEA	5	3	2	-	-
(d) The methods inherent in the project materials influenced my own approach to training educational administrators	5	4	1	-	-
3.2 Have you spent any further time examining the package of materials? <i>Some units (6)</i> <i>To a very limited extent (2)</i> <i>Not at all (2)</i>					
3.3 Have you used MEC in any form on the courses in which you have been involved as a trainer during the past year? <i>No - not my topic (3)</i> <i>No - needs modification (1)</i> <i>Adopted some ideas and activities (6)</i>					
3.4. Do you know whether any of your colleagues have used MEC in any form on their courses? <i>Can't say (9)</i> <i>"I gave my package to an SMA and think he may have used it on regional courses" (Staff management adviser)</i>					

#### 4. Materials Development at SCEA

- 4.1. During the workshop, group reports of Phase 1 (identification of issues concerning the design of training and implementation), highlighted key issues associated with materials, these included:-

- (a) Present SCEA materials need revising to include a greater practical and activity base
- (b) Materials produced in Sinhala/Tamil are insufficient
- (c) Lack of trained personnel in educational management for preparation & translation of supplementary reading materials
- (d) Lack of materials on educational policy
- (e) No audio visual aids other than OHP's, because SCEA lacks resources and expertise
- (f) The need to develop a materials bank

WHAT steps, that you are aware of, have been taken to examine these issues further and remedy any problems?

*Comments mainly focussed on the revision of distance teaching materials (including activities & readings); the preparation of Digests (texts translated into Sinhala). Re.(f) No action, but many staff feel that it would be useful*



- 4.2. Has there been any noticeable change in the materials development process at SCEA over the past year

Yes No Difficult to say  
- - 10

If yes, please elaborate  
-

- 4.3. Is there any regular procedure at SCEA for:-

	YES	NO
(a) Reviewing the materials development process	?	?
(b) Monitoring on-going materials writing projects	-	
(c) Planning future materials development to meet training needs		?

If yes, please elaborate

*[Question was reformulated. Materials development is carried out, if at all, on an informal, individual or ad hoc basis]*

- 4.4 What do you consider to be SCEA's priority needs for materials?  
Local readings (3); Materials for regional centres (2)  
Case studies & role plays (4); Audio visual materials (1)

How could these best be met?

Some sort of materials development committee (3)  
Need greater commitment from Director to materials preparation and the provision of some form of incentives for writing (3)  
Group preparation of materials (3)  
No comment (1)

- 4.5. Outlines for five packages were prepared during the last phase of the workshop. These were:-

Delegation  
Innovation at School Level  
Introduction to Educational Change  
School Supervision  
Some Aspects of Staff Development

(a) On which materials preparation team were you? .....

(b) What support was there for continuing the work after the workshop?

*[Evidently none. The outlines were finalised within a month of the workshop; no further work was undertaken on them]*

(c) Is the module with which you were involved completed?

*[None are complete. None of the faculty has seen the final revised outlines]*

## 5. Training Methodology at SCEA

### 5.1 The workshop group reports of Phase 1 included the following recommendations concerning training methodology:-

Adult education techniques should be adopted in the training programmes

More practical methods should be used

Methods which are adopted should be reviewed continuously

Follow-up studies must be done to evaluate the impact of training

Training programmes for trainers have to be increased

HAVE you personally been influenced by these recommendations in any way, and if so how?

*Most responses indicated agreement with all these recommendations. Discussion in the interview focussed on the need for mechanisms for undertaking follow-up studies, and the need for staff development activities at SCEA*

### 5.2. Has there been any noticeable change in methods use by trainers at SCEA over the past year

Yes	No	Difficult to say
2	3	5 (slight)

If yes, please elaborate

*[yes or slight]*

*Informal discussion of methods has increased  
More group activities and the use of team teaching  
"has influenced my thinking about methods"*

*[No]*

*Lack of time and co-ordination  
Individual trainer approach in courses militates against improvement  
No support from Director for being innovative*

(b) QUESTIONNAIRE

SRI LANKA FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION STUDY

ON

"THE NATIONAL TRAINING WORKSHOP ON

THE PREPARATION OF MATERIALS FOR MANAGING CHANGE IN SCHOOLS"

Organised by the Sri Lanka Staff College for Educational Administration and the University of London Institute of Education, Research and Materials Development Project: Training Third World Educational Administrators - Methods and Materials.

IN APRIL 1985

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCEA TRAINERS

The questionnaire seeks to obtain information on your use of methods and materials, your views on the role of the trainer and the nature of the training process, and your perception of SCEA Staff Development needs. You may find some questions difficult to answer simply and you may wish to make additional comments to supplement or clarify your answers. Please be as frank as possible in your responses, and many thanks for your co-operation.

1. Training methods

1.1. Recall the last SCEA training course for which you were responsible or on which you made a major input. Which of the following activities took place in the class during the training sessions:-

	Not at all	To some extent	Extensively
Lecturing	0	7	3
Plenary discussions	1	8	1
Group activities	0	6	4
Small group discussions	0	7	3
Case study analysis	4	5	1
Simulation exercises	4	6	0
Role playing	4	6	0
Individual study	4	5	1
Others (please specify)			
Field study	-	1	-

Was this typical of the strategy which you normally adopt in training?

YES/NO

BECAUSE .....

Yes: *"Adult participants; experience of management problems"*

No: *"Strategy depends on topic and target group"*

*"The need to adjust to what has been planned"*

- *"Time constraints result in lecturing; with more time, there would be greater use of simulations etc..."*

- 1.2 What are the main difficulties which you encounter when you use the methods listed above. Please provide a brief statement alongside each method

Lecturing: *Participant passivity & boredom; difficult to assess assimilation*  
 Plenary discussions: *Passivity; time wasted on trivial points; needs structuring*  
 Group activities: *Time constraints; groups large/unmanageable; Non-participation; needs careful planning*  
 Small group discussions: *Time for groups to report back; planning*  
 Case study analysis: *Time; planning & preparation; lack of background knowledge; all facts can be covered*  
 Simulation exercises: *Time; planning & preparation; lacks reality*  
 Role playing: *Time; outcomes depend on 'actors'; unexpected outcomes; irrelevant for providing facts*  
 Individual study: *Time; limited readings materials because in English; low out-of-class motivation*  
 Others (please specify).....

- 1.3 In the past year, have you introduced any new methods into your training repertoire.

YES/NO      Yes = 8; No = 2

If yes, please give brief details of your reasons for doing so and comment on how effective you felt it was; the reactions of participants; the preparation involved; and any other relevant comments

*Examples given: Group activities; case studies; incidents; team teaching. Trainees reactions positive - appreciated the active participation; learning promoted; theory made more understandable*

- 1.4. State in the space below the following list, each method not used or used very infrequently and quote any reasons listed as (a) - (m)

(a) Too much time needed for preparation	5
(b) Too much time needed during the course	9
(c) Little evidence of method effectiveness	4
(d) Method not appropriate for educational administrator training	1
(e) Size of programme intakes limits or prevents its use	3
(f) Too much responsibility for learning left with participants	2
(g) Participants expect staff to provide initiatives in learning/training	1
(h) Method conflicts with educational backgrounds	1
(i) Expertise not available to handle methods	3
(j) Facilities (room arrangements, size numbers etc..) inappropriate	7
Any other reasons stated briefly	-

METHODS	Reasons
case study	c
simulations	a,b,e,h,i,j,
individual study	a,b,e,f,j,k
lecturing	c,d
plenary discussion	g
small group discussion	j

1.5. How often do you share with colleagues your ideas, problems, and concerns about training methodology? (Please x one response)

- (a) Not at all 0
- (b) Irregularly 5
- (c) Regularly 5

If you respond (b) or (c) please state in what way  
*informal discussions with faculty and/or modular co-ordinator, and/or peers*

1.6. Have you noticed any marked differences in the way in which your colleagues work as trainers in the past year?

- (a) marked differences noticed 1
- (b) some differences noticed 8
- (c) no differences noticed 0
- (d) difficult to say 1

If you respond (a) or (b) please elaborate

*Content and methods continually updated. More use of activities*

1.7 Do any of the following encourage the effective use of methods at SCEA?

	No	Sometimes	Yes
(a) Attitudes to the training function and staff roles	6	4	0
(b) Status and career prospects of trainers	6	4	0
(c) Availability/quality of training resources	6	3	1
(d) Facilities for training the trainers	5	1	3
(e) Evaluation procedures to provide information on programme defects	3	1	6
(f) Staff visits (national and abroad)	6	1	3
(g) Traditional approaches to learning	5	3	2
(h) Provision of research on training	2	5	3
(i) Shortage of materials	3	4	3
(j) Other (please specify) <i>time constraints</i>	1	1	2

## 2. Training materials

2.1. What contribution do you feel that materials can make in the in-service training of educational administrators and why?

*Improved effectiveness; facilitate communication; help in providing background information & new perspectives; motivational; re-inforces training; enables trainers to use more effective methods*

2.2 Recall the last SCEA training course for which you were responsible of in which you provided a major input. Which or the following materials did you use?

	Not at all	Some extent	Extensively
Handouts (background information)	0	3	7
Readings	3	7	0
Task/Activity sheets	0	7	3
Cases	3	6	1
Self-instructional texts	6	3	1
Overhead projector transparencies	1	3	6
Other (please specify) <i>Role plays</i>	-	1	-

Was this typical of the strategy which you normally adopt in training? YES/NO BECAUSE:

*"strategy depends on programme & client group"*

- 2.3. What percentage of your total time do you spend on materials preparation? (Please make an approximate estimate and the appropriate box below)

0%	0 - 5%	5 - 10%	10 - 15%	15 - 20 %	20 - 30%	30% up
-	-	1	3	1	3	2

What percentage of the total time you spend on materials development is allocated to preparing the following types of materials? (EG. 50% on modular materials, 50% on exercises) Please give examples where possible [eg. under (c) an example might be OHP transparencies].

	%	Examples*
	[rank order est.]	
(a) Materials for exercises/activities	4	
(b) Materials to provide background information	2	
(c) Materials as presentation aids	3	
(d) Materials in support of methods	5	
(e) Modular materials	1	

Examples given\* included:-

- (a) data; questionnaires; group activities
- (b) ministry information; readings
- (c) handouts; ohp transparencies
- (d) exercises, role plays; case studies

- 2.4 A list of possible difficulties/constraints you might encounter in developing materials is given below. Please examine it and add any additional items as necessary, and then rank order a maximum of ten items using the letter prefix. Start with the major difficulty. (Eg. E,A,F... E is the major difficulty you encounter)

- A Opportunities for trialling materials
- B Access to photocopying/duplicating facilities
- C Recognition of your role as a materials developer
- D Money for materials development
- E Time for planning
- F Your lack of necessary skills
- G Support from colleagues
- H Time for preparation
- I ..... lack of local research
- J ..... lack of books

RANK LISTING .....

Rank orders: D/H; E; A; B; C; F/G; J; I

- 2.5 To what extent have you been influenced, if at all, by the exposure to the package of materials on 'Managing Educational Change' at the April workshop?

Comments/statement with respect to:-

OVERALL EXERCISE: useful as an analytical exercise (1)

CONTENT: Positive w.r.t. course design & identification of content (2)

Negative w.r.t. materials content (1)

Limited w.r.t. materials content (1)

METHODOLOGY:

Positive w.r.t. reinforcing views on andragogical methods (2)

Positive w.r.t. insights provided/promoting new thinking (5)

MATERIALS:

Limited influence because of time demanded by materials (1)

Provided guidance for SCEA materials development (2)

# 1. The trainers' role and the training process

Please check one box in each row to indicate how you feel about a statement:

	Strongly Agree	Tend to Agree	Uncertain	Tend to Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The trainer should decide the knowledge and skills to be transmitted, organise content in a logical order and 'teach' it.	3	1	3	2	1
In the training of educational administrators the best way to ensure transfer of learning is to provide opportunities for them to draw on their own experience and engage in practical activities.	8	-	2	-	-
Lectures are the only efficient way of covering a lot of material if knowledge is the course objective.	2	2	1	4	1
Our participants are not used to activity-based and participatory learning and want theoretical inputs; I would therefore avoid using experiential methods.	1	-	-	4	5
Our participants are unable to identify and analyse the problems in their schools & thus the use of methods requiring learning through the analysis of problems is an ineffective training strategy at SCEA.	-	-	-	5	5
Trainers should see themselves as facilitators and resource persons rather than as information providers.	6	3	1	-	-
Trainers who are inexperienced as group facilitators should avoid using materials which require this approach.	3	2	2	3	-
Although many experiential methods originate in a western or business context, they are appropriate for use in Sri Lanka if we develop local materials in support of these methods.	1	9	-	-	-
The successful trainer is one who designs a series of learning experiences to achieve clearly defined objectives, and uses a <u>variety</u> of methods to help ensure that learning is transfer to the job.	8	2	-	-	-

#### 4. Staff Development Needs

- 4.1. Last April we undertook an analysis of SCEA staff training needs. You may recall that you generated a list of tasks and responsibilities and then prioritised these in terms of those areas in which you would most benefit from training. We would like you to repeat this exercise.

The list is reproduced below. Please rank order these items using the letter prefix. List a maximum of 10 items  
(Example B, D, O, M,.....N., C.

B = highest priority training need

D = second most important training need etc....)

#### **SCEA STAFF RESPONSIBILITIES**

- A. Prepare lesson plans
- B. Prepare practical exercises
- C. Design evaluations
- D. Select methods
- E. Identify training needs
- F. Prepare reports on trainees
- G. Course co-ordination
- H. Supervise co-ordination
- I. Prepare handouts
- J. Prepare case studies
- K. Prepare Audio visual aids
- L. Identify course content
- M. Training/lecturing
- N. Research
- O. Consultancies
- P. Self-development
- Q. Follow-up
- R. Staff meetings
- S. Committees
- T. Prepare Readings
- U. Writing

**RANK LISTING: N, E, O, L, C/D, J, B, M, Q, P, I/G, K**

- 4.2 If during the completion of this questionnaire, it appears that there are other significant aspects on training methods and materials which the questionnaire has not considered, please give details and comments here. [5 gave no additional comments]

*"Managing Educational Change is only a small part of overall SCEA curriculum. The module MEC is more appropriate for a long-term programme".*

*"We need more training materials in Sinhala ...need more books (English) in the library."*

*"Need to consider 'training' more in terms of 'professional growth'."*

*"... need to do more field visits, research and consultancies (both trainers and trainees) to develop analytical skills."*

*"Need clearer definition of training needs of clients. Methods, materials and content should be re-thought depending on redefined training needs"*



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